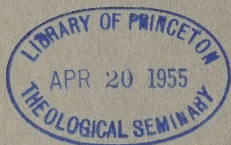
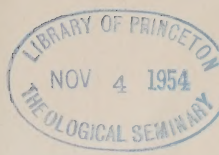

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PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION FOR LIBRARIES
A BIBLIOGRAPHIC ESSAY

Prepared by
Ralph E. McCoy, Chairman

Assisted by the
Subcommittee on Bibliography on
Personnel Administration
of the
✓ A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration

Accepted by
The Board, February 1953

Chicago
American Library Association
1953

PERSONNEL OF THE
SUBCOMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY ON
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION
OF THE
A.L.A. BOARD ON PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

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FOREWORD

There has been a growing realization during the past thirty years that successful management of any enterprise, public or private, depends on getting effective results from people. This emphasis on the human aspects of management - the selection and development of personnel - has resulted in a growing body of doctrine and techniques.

Libraries, in common with other enterprises, are concerned with personnel administration. The extent of this concern will vary from the one-man library to the large public or university library with hundreds of employees, many of whom are highly trained specialists. The fact that well over half of the budget of most libraries is spent on salaries is, in itself, evidence of the need for the library administrator to be acquainted with personnel administration.

This bibliographic essay constitutes a brief survey of the large body of personnel literature, with special reference to its application to libraries. It is intended to give the library administrator, his personnel assistants, and all those librarians who supervise the work of others a background in the personnel field as well as to provide them with a guide to the solution of specific problems. Two observations should be made concerning the application of the doctrine and techniques presented here. First, librarians can learn much from successful personnel programs in business and government and from the theoretical contributions of the social sciences. Second, considerable judgment needs to be exercised by library administrators in adapting the personnel programs of other libraries, as well as the programs of other types of institutions. The experiences described in this essay can be used best as a basis for local experimentation which, in the final analysis, is the first step toward progress.

Preliminary selection and annotating of the literature was done by the Subcommittee on Bibliography on Personnel Administration of the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration, created for that purpose. The writing of the essay was largely the work of the chairman. In making the selection the subcommittee tried to keep in mind the various types of libraries - public, college, university, school, and special. Consideration was given to the personnel problems and interests of the small library with an informal personnel program as well as the large library employing a full-time personnel officer, although it was not always possible to designate the size of library to which the reference might apply. Education for librarianship, although closely related to the selection and development of library personnel, was considered beyond the scope of this essay. All forms of printed materials were considered in making the selection, but an effort was made to avoid reference to items difficult to obtain. Films and other audio-visual aids were not considered. Selection was limited to American publications and, with few exceptions, to publications written since 1935.

References are made not only to those publications which relate directly to library situations, but also to a considerable number of general works which are applicable to libraries. If the selection seems heavily weighted with the literature of industry and government, it is because the subcommittee was not always able to find suitable contributions from library

literature. By and large, libraries do not seem to have given as much attention to the selection and development of their employees as they have to the selection and development of their book collections. Although library journals frequently carry articles on personnel problems, many of the articles are descriptive rather than analytical. The need for further study and investigation in this area of library administration is evident.

The bibliographic essay, rather than the traditional item-by-item method of annotating, was chosen for this presentation in order to show the relationship of the various aspects of personnel administration as reflected in the literature and to present a synthesis of concepts and techniques. This method also permitted the discussion of several articles as a unit whereas an annotation of each article separately would have placed undue emphasis on individual items.

To avoid interrupting the narrative with bibliographic description, complete entries are arranged in numerical order at the end of each chapter. A detailed subject index is furnished at the back of the publication as an aid in locating the treatment of specific topics.

The subject arrangement of this essay follows that used in a number of standard personnel texts. Following a general discussion of works dealing with the principles of personnel administration and suggestions for establishing a personnel program, the chapters are concerned with the establishment of a position-classification and pay plan, the selection of employees, the development of employees, the conditions of employment, and finally, the psychological aspects of employee-employer relations.

The subcommittee gratefully acknowledges the assistance given by members of the Board on Personnel Administration and the suggestions and criticisms made by various librarians and personnel specialists to whom the manuscript was submitted. Appreciation is also extended to members of the library staff of the University of Illinois Library School for assistance in locating materials and to the library staff of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations at the University of Illinois for various tasks in the preparation of the manuscript. Miss Katherine Staack assisted in the bibliographic editing, and Mrs. Melba E. McCoy assisted in the preparation of the subject index.

The subcommittee is grateful to the Association Press, the Columbia University Press, and the University of Chicago Press for permission to use material from their publications.

Ralph E. McCoy, Chairman
Subcommittee on Bibliography
on Personnel Administration
A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration

February 1953

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Chapter I

GENERAL

A. Background Reading

Personnel administration in its broadest sense has four objectives; to find the best qualified worker for the job; to instruct and direct him effectively; to treat him with understanding and consideration; and to recognize and develop his greatest abilities. Most of the literature in the field deals with one or more of these aspects.

Research and publishing in personnel administration is generally of two types: that dealing with business and industry and that dealing with the public service. Industrial personnel administration is concerned largely, although not exclusively, with employees who work in the manual and technical trades. Emphasis is on such factors as relations with unions, wage and salary administration, industrial hygiene and safety, and welfare programs. Public service personnel administration, on the other hand, deals largely, although not exclusively, with white collar workers, and the emphasis is on the development of a competent body of career employees operating under a civil service system. Although there is a core of principles and techniques common to both groups, experience in the public personnel field is more nearly applicable to most library situations.

If any work can be called a bible in the public personnel field it is Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl's Public Personnel Administration, which is now in its third edition (1). This work traces the development of public service in American government and describes in considerable detail the principles and practices in all aspects of personnel work. Footnotes and an annotated bibliography lead the reader to more exhaustive treatments of each subject. This text is well-supplemented by a collection of significant readings in personnel administration prepared by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada (2).

A landmark in the development of better government personnel is the report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel published in 1935 (3). Although the report deals largely with the Federal civil service, it outlines principles and makes recommendations on the development of a career service which have much wider application. Leonard D. White, in his small but eloquent volume, Government Career Service, deals with one phase of this problem - the creation of an administrative corps in the Federal government (4).

In the industrial field it is difficult to cite one best work since more than a dozen textbooks cover much the same area with varying approaches. An encyclopedic work in personnel administration is the 1,167-page Personnel Handbook to which 65 specialists have contributed as authors or consultants (5). A more readable book, with a minimum of technical details, is Calhoon's Problems in Personnel Administration, developed from a survey of 592 industrial personnel departments (6). Calhoon describes typical personnel problems and the varying methods of handling them. Supplementing these is Halsey's handbook, which is a collection of excerpts from company handbooks,

policy manuals, periodical articles, and personnel texts (7). Two volumes of selected readings in personnel administration offer a wide variety of significant articles in convenient form (8, 9).

As is the case with any rapidly developing field, periodical literature is important for new concepts and methods. In public personnel administration there are two major journals; Public Personnel Review (10), which is the quarterly journal of the Civil Service Assembly, and Personnel Administration (11), published monthly by the Society for Personnel Administration. Personnel Journal (12) and Personnel (13), the former a commercial periodical and the latter issued by the American Management Association, cover the industrial personnel field. All four journals are indexed in Public Affairs Information Service. Personnel Psychology is the major journal dealing with applied research in such areas as employee morale, testing, and merit rating (14). The reports and pamphlets issued from time to time by the Civil Service Assembly are also important in keeping up to date in public personnel matters. The American Management Association's Personnel Series, which reports the association's annual personnel conferences, contains a number of popular yet authoritative articles (15). The National Industrial Conference Board, an industry-sponsored research and information agency, has issued more than one hundred Studies in Personnel Policy which describe existing industry practices in such matters as group insurance plans, holiday practices, merit rating, and military leave policies (16). Although the board gathers some personnel data from industry, the major source for statistics on such factors as wages, salaries, and hours of work is the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. These data, together with expert interpretation, are generally reported in the bureau's Monthly Labor Review (17). An extensive series of bulletins from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, entitled Collective Bargaining Provisions, quote actual contract clauses dealing with such personnel matters as wage adjustment plans; promotion, transfer, and assignment; leaves of absence; apprentices; and vacations and holidays (18). These statements may be useful to a library administrator both in formulating a personnel policy and in phrasing this policy for publication in a staff manual.

Librarians of public libraries will find of particular interest the publication of the International City Managers' Association, entitled Municipal Personnel Administration, which does an outstanding job of summarizing personnel practices in municipal government (19). It also contains a great deal of practical information on the operation of municipal personnel agencies.

Especially pertinent to the personnel problems of college and university libraries is the general literature dealing with academic personnel. Woodburne, from a survey of faculty personnel policies and practices of 46 American colleges and universities, describes the major personnel problems of higher education and indicates ways in which they are being solved (20). He notes a startling diversity between institutions of the same type and believes that solutions of personnel problems are more inclined to follow local custom than a uniform acceptable pattern. A detailed statistical analysis of personnel practice in 81 colleges and universities is reported in a survey made by the College and University Personnel Association (21). The survey includes data on wage and salary administration, recruitment, testing, training, benefits, and working conditions. Emphasis is on nonacademic and administrative personnel. The report of the President's Commission on Higher

Education (1947) contains a section which summarizes conditions and makes recommendations for staffing higher education (22). Emphasis is placed on methods for measuring academic qualification, on programs for in-service development, and on provisions for personal and professional security. The Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors frequently deals with personnel problems from the point of view of the members of the faculty rather than the administration (23). Such subjects as retirement programs, salaries, tenure, and academic freedom are discussed from time to time in this official organ.

Cooke's Administering the Teaching Personnel is one of several books dealing with secondary school personnel (24). Although it makes no mention of school librarians, it treats many topics which are of concern to school librarians as well as to teachers - the use of placement services, legal requirements for positions, teaching load versus extracurricular duties, and the employment of substitutes. A survey of teacher personnel practices in 1950-51, based on questionnaires sent to city superintendents of schools, was conducted by the National Education Association (25). The first part of the survey deals with matters of recruitment, selection, appointment, and terms of service. The second part deals with conditions of employment, leaves of absence, professional development and promotion, and general administration of a school personnel program. Special personnel problems relating to school custodial employees (in many instances also applicable to library custodians) are discussed in a series of articles appearing in the American School Board Journal (26). Topics included are hours of work, salaries, relations with unions, vacations, sick leave, workmen's compensation, and pension programs.

Librarians who desire references in addition to those given in this essay should consult the comprehensive bibliography issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission (27); Baker and Rawson's annotated bibliography, published in 1951 by Ohio State University (28); and the bimonthly Selected References on various personnel topics, issued by the Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University (29). The extensive bibliography in Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl has already been noted (1).

B. Personnel Administration in Libraries

In libraries, as in other educational and cultural agencies, there has been traditionally a reluctance to apply the objective techniques of modern business to the administration of personnel. Such application has frequently been considered inappropriate for professional employees. In recent years, however, there has been a change in attitude on the part of many library administrators. The increase in number and size of libraries, the wartime shortage of trained personnel, and the general emphasis in government and business on such matters as pensions, job security, and employee services have prompted many libraries to adopt a more formalized program for personnel administration.

The importance of personnel planning has also been emphasized by activities of the American Library Association. In 1922 the Committee on Salaries was set up, and thereafter several other committees dealing with schemes of service, classification plans, civil service relations, employment conditions, and other personnel matters were established. In 1937 the work of

these committees was turned over to a board which, since 1944, has been called the Board on Personnel Administration. This board was established to promote efficient personnel administration in all types of libraries "by assembling, analyzing, and studying data; formulating procedures, standards, and recommendations; (and) testing through discussion and field experimentation." Specifically the board was directed to encourage libraries in setting up classification and pay plans, to promote better employment procedures and staff relations, and to study and report on such matters as tenure and merit rating. Subcommittees of the board have been responsible for a number of publications which will be discussed in various sections of this essay.

Personnel administration was the theme for the tenth annual Institute of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School held in 1945 (30). Both personnel experts and librarians participated, bringing to the discussions not only modern personnel theory but also its application and possible modification to library situations. "The Institute sought to view personnel administration in the larger framework of the purposes and services of libraries, and the papers bear evidence of a viewpoint wider than that of managerial techniques alone." Martin, in his introduction to these papers, indicates four concepts on which both personnel experts and librarians were in agreement; that management has a constant responsibility toward the worker; that the staff must operate as a team devoted to a common purpose; that great stress should be placed on the new recruit, not only in initial selection, but also in planning for his development and growth; and, finally, that the special character and techniques of personnel work require specially trained personnel assistants. Papers by Belsley (31) and Kaiser (32), presented before the 1938 Library Institute, should be used to supplement this collection.

Since any personnel program must necessarily take into consideration broader aspects of library planning, the library administrator would do well to examine the several A.L.A. planning publications for their statements on personnel (33, 34, 35, and 36). For example, the statement on postwar standards for public libraries discusses size of staff in relation to book circulation, and the school library planning volume discusses size of staff in relation to pupils served. A National Plan for Public Library Service also recommends that "Public libraries with staffs of 150 or more should have full-time personnel officers; in smaller libraries, the chief librarian himself should usually supervise this function." Salary standards recommended by the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration are discussed in Chapter II, E of this essay.

1. Public Libraries. The most extensive picture of personnel administration in public libraries was presented recently by Bryan as part of the Public Library Inquiry (37). This study, largely quantitative in nature, describes the personnel policies and practices in five major areas: employment, maintenance, training and communication, employee service and welfare, and evaluation of personnel practices. The survey is based on a detailed analysis of policies and practices of 58 public libraries. Bryan deals almost entirely with the results of this particular survey, with little reference to the findings of other and earlier studies. In the general report of the Public Library Inquiry, Leigh devotes a chapter to a summary of library personnel and training (38). In a subsequent chapter on "Direction of Development" (p.238-39) he cites four elements necessary for a successful personnel

program: 1) scientific job analysis and job classification; 2) certification; 3) a professional career service with adequate salaries and opportunities for advancement; and 4) security provisions for illness, accidents, and old age, regulations for leaves of absence and vacations, and participation in policy decisions. References will be made throughout this essay to detailed findings in the Public Library Inquiry.

In addition to the survey, public librarians also have a full-length volume on personnel in the work of Herbert, who had considerable experience with personnel problems both as librarian of the Public Library of the District of Columbia and as a member of the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration (39). This volume is well supplemented by Wight's article in the Chicago Library Institute volume (40) and by Chapters 8 and 9 of the McDiarmids' book on public library administration, a study of 315 municipal libraries (41). One of the best pictures of personnel problems in a large public library is given in Chapter 7 of Joeckel and Carnovsky's study of the Chicago Public Library (42).

One of the few discussions of personnel in state library extension agencies appears as a chapter of a doctoral thesis by Veit (43).

2. College and University Libraries. In the college and university library field there are a number of good general discussions on personnel administration. The first issue of Library Trends includes two articles which discuss current problems and trends in college and university library administration, with special emphasis on recent research; Coney deals with broad aspects of library management (44) and Thompson deals more specifically with the training and status of library personnel (45). McDiarmid outlines the essentials of a university library personnel program in the Chicago Library Institute volume (46); Wilson and Tauber give a concise summary of existing personnel practices in their book on university library administration (47); and Lyle provides a similar review of personnel practices in college libraries, with special attention to employment of student assistants (48).

Results of a survey of 16 large university libraries, designed to compare library personnel practices with those considered standard in the business field, is reported by Trent (49). In the five areas which he considered (centralization of authority, employment practices, training programs, factors affecting health and efficiency, and staff relations) he found that only two libraries had taken full advantage of the personnel experience of business. Prompted by Jacques Barzun's criticism of college libraries, Fay analyzes college library personnel practices which she indicates are the prime cause of most service difficulties (50). She criticizes the indifference and the lack of democratic staff relations, and notes that too many college libraries operate as "daily puppet shows manipulated by the chief librarian."

3. School Libraries. Since personnel problems of school libraries are closely related to the broader problems of school administration much of the literature in this area is part of the general literature of primary and secondary education. A bibliographic essay on "Teacher Personnel" surveys the recent studies in this area including publications in the field of certification, in-service training, teaching load, and welfare programs (51). In 1939 the National Education Association issued a statement on school library administration which described the status of school librarians and the

development of job standards up to that date (52). It also noted major research studies. A section of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards deals with objective data on library personnel - numerical adequacy, preparation, qualifications, duties, and conditions of service (53). Henne and associates describe a method of evaluating personnel practices in school libraries by use of rating scales (54). Cecil and Heaps summarize personnel practices in school libraries in 67 selected cities with special reference to type of administrative control (55). Fargo's Library in the School has one chapter on personnel (56), and the A.L.A.'s planning volume, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow, has a brief section on personnel standards (36).

4. Special Libraries. Although there have been a number of articles describing the personal qualifications for work in various types of special libraries, articles by Frost (57) and Goff (58) are among the few that have dealt with broad aspects of personnel administration in special libraries. In a general article on organizational relations of special libraries, Strieby refers to the status of the special librarian (59).

5. Cataloging Departments. At least two writers have given special attention to personnel administration in cataloging departments. A study of cataloging personnel in 118 large public libraries, conducted by Seely, indicates the size of staff in relation to work load and to other departments, and the relationship between professional and nonprofessional duties (60). Tauber discusses three special problems relating to cataloging personnel: the alleged lack of discriminating powers and acceptance of responsibility, the relation of administrative organization to production, and the absence of a recruiting program for cataloging personnel (61).

C. Civil Service and Libraries

One of the major controversies in library personnel administration for more than a generation has been the advantages and disadvantages of operating under a civil service jurisdiction. The crux of the problem is whether the library should be a part of a city, state, or Federal system, which includes many other types of employees from diverse agencies, or whether the library should operate its own merit system. The best general discussion of civil service as applied to libraries was presented by the American Library Association in 1945 (62). This pamphlet summarizes the pros and cons of civil service for libraries and brings light to a subject on which there has been considerably more heat than illumination.

Bryan indicates from the study of 58 public libraries (p.167-82) that controversies over civil service in libraries probably reflect "lack of experience, with consequent uncertainty and fear of the unknown, (rather) than any fundamental prejudice against the general merit system of employment" (37). Whether under civil service or not, Bryan found that "the morale and efficiency of public library personnel depend on recognition by librarians of the importance of adopting the principles and practices of modern personnel management and of developing them as a specialized skill under the direction of personnel experts within and without the library system."

Since the major factor in civil service is that of control over selection,

this subject is discussed further in Chapter III of this essay. The topic of civil service versus faculty status of professional librarians in college and university libraries is discussed in Chapter V, C.

D. Establishing and Evaluating a Personnel Program

One of the basic concepts in personnel administration is that the responsibility for personnel policies in an organization lies with the chief executive who must make the ultimate policy decisions within the framework established by the governing body. At the same time, it is recognized that many personnel functions, especially in a large enterprise, require studied skills and that the chief executive will need competent staff specialists to advise him and to assist him in carrying out personnel policies. This staff assistance may vary from the part-time services of a single assistant to a full-scale personnel unit. In industry and government today it is rare to find an efficient organization that has not given some attention to a comprehensive personnel program. In many cases outside consultants have been employed to set up a new personnel program or to recommend changes in an existing program.

There are a number of general works which outline the elements of a comprehensive personnel program. In the public personnel field Hubbard has written a clear and concise statement to guide personnel planners (63). He analyzes the personnel problems encountered by any agency and summarizes acceptable methods for meeting them. In 1945 the U. S. Federal Security Agency prepared a checklist for use by agency personnel officers in measuring the effectiveness of their program (64). For each of seven subject areas, the manual lists the basic objectives of the personnel program and itemizes the steps to take in achieving each objective.

Another basic concept in personnel administration deals with the relationship between the personnel staff and line supervisors. Unless all parties to personnel actions in an organization understand the division of responsibility for personnel matters between the technical and operating staffs, there is likely to be friction. The practical problems as well as the concept of line and staff relations are discussed in most personnel texts. A brief statement of the integration of the personnel program with line departments is made by Hubbard (63).

An interesting description of the installation of personnel systems in a number of small Michigan cities has been issued by Public Administration Service, a nonprofit organization which will advise public service agencies in establishing personnel programs (65). Although every personnel system must be tailor-made to suit the conditions of the particular agency, this publication is cited as an example of typical statements of policy and procedure, based on careful study of special sets of problems.

In the industrial field, both the American Management Association and the National Industrial Conference Board have issued handbooks on how to establish and maintain a personnel department. The A.M.A. volume crystalizes the best existing practices in both small and large companies (66). The conference board publication describes the personnel programs in 57 companies each employing less than 500 persons (67).

Suggested plans for personnel organization and procedure in college and university libraries and in public libraries have been prepared by a subcommittee of the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration (68, 69). These plans were designed to call attention to important factors to be considered in drawing up any library personnel program, rather than as a definite plan to be adopted as such. Osteen describes the organization and functions of a library personnel office in an article which is available in reprint form from the publisher (70).

In public libraries, Bryan indicates (p.158) that there is a tendency for progressively greater delegation of responsibility for personnel administration as the size of the library staff increases (37). Two-thirds of the metropolitan libraries surveyed have separate personnel offices, although for most of these this is a new development. Bryan discusses the size and function of library personnel offices and qualifications for personnel jobs (p.156-67). She notes that personnel administration in public libraries generally falls short of standards set in A National Plan for Public Library Service and that, by and large, personnel administration has not been institutionalized and delegated as have other aspects of public library administration.

Although most annual reports and surveys of individual libraries have discussed salaries, hours of work, and conditions of employment, few have given more than passing attention to the organization for personnel administration. Perhaps the most detailed description of the personnel program of an individual library is that for the Library of Congress, as reported in the Annual Report of the Librarian (71). The section of the 1950 report dealing with the Personnel Division includes a discussion of the staff participation program, the posting system, the special recruitment program, the loyalty program, the position-classification system, and changes in personnel during the year. A detailed personnel manual of the Library of Congress is in preparation. Although the Library of Congress is not included in the competitive civil service system of the Federal government, it has been specifically included in certain Acts of Congress which form a part of the civil service system. These relate to classification, merit ratings, retirement, time and leave, salary administration, and political activity. Swank gives a comprehensive statement of the library personnel policies in one library, the University of Oregon (72). The survey of the organization, administration, and management of the Los Angeles Public Library devotes an entire volume to personnel administration (73).

Progressive organizations in government and in private industry find it desirable, from time to time, to take stock of their personnel programs and to measure their effectiveness. This is usually done by a personnel audit, either self-administered or made by an outside agency. Such audits are described briefly in an American Management Association pamphlet (74) and in Section 20 of the Personnel Handbook (5). The latter reproduces a detailed questionnaire used by one company. Bryan reports that a very small proportion of the public libraries surveyed have developed a careful, systematic evaluation of personnel practices and instruments (37). She describes techniques commonly used in evaluation of personnel practices in public libraries and recommends others not generally used.

The experts agree that personnel policies, no matter how general or how simple they may be, should be reduced to writing and made known to all concerned. The effectiveness of any personnel program will depend in a large part on the understanding and acceptance of the program by both the operating (line) officials and employees. A discussion of methods of informing the staff about personnel policies is given in Chapter VI, G of this essay.

E. Personnel Records and Forms

A system of records and forms that will supply necessary information about employees and prospective employees is essential in any personnel program. A collection of good personnel forms in actual use by business firms has been prepared by the American Management Association (75). Halsey's book on Selecting and Inducting Employees gives a number of forms used in the selection process (76). Although few of the forms given in these two works can be adopted as such by libraries, many of them will suggest convenient and efficient ways of recording library personnel data. No general compilation of library personnel forms has been published, but the A.L.A. manuals of personnel procedures, referred to in Section D, contain several sample forms (68, 69). The Office of Personnel Administration of the American Library Association has a collection of personnel forms in use by libraries which may be borrowed by interested librarians. See Chapter IV, E of this essay for library forms used in merit rating. Table 64 in Bryan's book indicates 33 types of personnel forms and the extent of their use in public libraries (37). The application of mechanical systems of punched cards to personnel record-keeping in large libraries is discussed in Chapter 6 of Parker's volume (77). McGaw's work on the use of marginal punched cards (manually operated) in colleges and universities may also be applicable to personnel record-keeping, although no examples of such use are cited (78).

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Chapter II

POSITION CLASSIFICATION AND SALARY ADMINISTRATION

A. General

A sound personnel program in any organization employing more than a few people must be built upon the framework of a position-classification scheme, either formal or informal. A good position-classification scheme serves many purposes in a library. According to Bryan: "It provides an inventory of the personnel necessary for the operation of the organization as a whole; it differentiates the various levels and types of positions and indicates their functional relationships; it provides the basis for setting up specifications for the selection of properly qualified employees; it defines the lines of employee promotion. If the classification adopted is well planned, it will insure a balanced personnel structure, providing appropriate intermediate positions through which responsibility can be delegated as the library grows in size and complexity of organization. In addition, such a scheme is indispensable to the establishment of an equitable salary scale for the institution" (1).

B. Work Analysis

A detailed analysis and description of all jobs that need to be performed in the library is the first step in the formation of a position-classification scheme. The job analysis may be preceded or accompanied by a more fundamental type of work analysis which inquires not only into the nature of specific jobs as they exist but subjects the entire work process to a test of efficiency. The use of work analysis through the means of motion and time study is more common in industry than in government. Public agencies in recent years, however, have employed a device known as "work simplification" which attempts to analyze work methods and work flow without the use of the mechanical measuring devices commonly used in motion and time study. The best single guide to job analysis for classification purposes, as practiced in government agencies, is the Civil Service Assembly's Position-Classification in the Public Service (2). A shorter work on the same subject, and with an equally practical slant, is Pfiffner and Lane's A Manual for Administrative Analysts (3). Voorhies offers a brief review of the theory of job analysis and relates it to salary surveys as well as to position classification (4). A somewhat more detailed but popularized description of job analysis, as employed in industry - the various techniques used and the installation and maintenance of a plan - is presented by Pigage and Tucker (5).

Private firms and consultants can be hired to make a work analysis, as was done in the case of the New York Public Library (6). The library staff, however, can do a reasonably satisfactory job from employee records and interviews, and the results will offer a valuable experience and insight into the library's operations. The recent report, Position Classification and Salary Administration in Libraries, prepared by an A.L.A. subcommittee, offers a clear and explicit set of directions for a survey of the duties of library positions (7). This report is specifically designed for the medium-sized library (with a staff of 10 or more), is written in terms of library situations, and has several examples of needed forms.

Some important or especially interesting examples of work analyses in libraries include the Baldwin and Marcus study (8), one of the first important studies of this kind, and the study by Pierce (9), conducted as part of the Public Library Inquiry. The latter is the most extensive work analysis ever done in a library. Black did essentially the same type of study in a small college library (10); Greenbaum in a special library (11); McFadden and Norris in a large public library (12); and Oller in a small public library (13). All of these studies can be read with profit, as to their methods. Kaiser has a bibliography of about 40 items in his general review of job analysis in libraries (14). Battles records the application of classical motion and time study technique to one phase of a college library's operations, but the technique is too complicated and too precise for the needs of most libraries (15). Herner and Heatwole employed time studies to determine the quantity and the type of staff members required to carry on the basic activities of a small research library (16). The procedures used would be equally applicable to a small college library or to a department or division of a larger library.

One of the by-products of work analysis is the light it sheds on the distribution of duties between professional and clerical employees. A useful tool in this connection is the A.L.A.'s Descriptive List of Professional and Nonprofessional Duties in Libraries (17). Wight comments on the need to assign professional duties to librarians and nonprofessional tasks to clerical employees and suggests steps to be taken in analyzing current assignments and in planning for the redistribution of work (18). Williams discusses the problem in regard to university libraries, on the basis of factual data (19).

C. Position Classification

Like other administrators, librarians have long been familiar with the need for grouping many single positions in a system of classes. This process was found necessary in order to insure that equal pay was given for equal work and for other administrative purposes. Up until a few decades ago, such a system, when reduced to written form, was usually called by libraries a "graded scheme of service." The most serious defect in this earlier stage of development was that positions were usually grouped into classes according to the qualifications possessed by the persons appointed to the positions. In more recent years, libraries have generally adopted the same type of position-classification plan usually found in other government agencies and in business and industry. Under such plans positions are grouped into classes according to the nature of the duties and responsibilities which go to make up those positions. The one main complicating factor is in the case of academic libraries when their position-classification plan is tied into the system of professorial ranks. This problem is discussed in the literature on faculty rank described in Chapter V, C of this essay.

The use of position-classification schemes in libraries is still far from universal. Bryan found that only a little more than half the libraries surveyed in the Public Library Inquiry had systematic classifications of positions and only half of this number kept their classification schemes current by periodic reanalysis of jobs (1).

The theory of the modern position-classification plan is nowhere better developed than in the Civil Service Assembly's report, Position-Classification

in the Public Service (2). A shorter introduction to this theory is to be found in an article by Baruch (of the U. S. Civil Service Commission) entitled "Basic Aspects of Position-Classification" (20), and in the essay by Pope (of the Public Administration Service) entitled "Classification of Positions" (21). A presentation which stresses practical applications of the theory is to be found in Chapter 3 of the volume, Municipal Personnel Administration, prepared and published by the International City Managers' Association (22). Sample class specifications are given in Appendix A of that volume. In Classification in a Nutshell, the U. S. Civil Service Commission explains the principles and operation of the Federal position-classification system (23). Remley discusses position classification with some consideration to its application in libraries (24). Hitt's article, "Classification and Pay Plans," is the best statement on this subject for librarians who are just beginning to study position classification (25).

The lessons of extensive experience with the creation of position-classification plans, in libraries and elsewhere, are available in print. The best single source is again the 400-page report of the Civil Service Assembly (2). Shorter, more recent, and (from the point of view of most libraries) somewhat more practical advice on how to create a position-classification plan is to be found in Municipal Personnel Administration (22), on pages 62-67 of Pfiffner and Lane's A Manual for Administrative Analysts (3), and in a pamphlet of the U. S. Civil Service Commission, Position-Classification as an Aid to Supervision (26). These are in addition to the references under Section B of this chapter on "Work Analysis," which is the first step in the creation of a position-classification plan.

A library administrator who wants to know how to install a position-classification plan in his library should use the A.L.A.'s Position Classification and Salary Administration in Libraries (7). Although relatively short, this is a manual of practical and specific directions for libraries, with many examples and illustrations. The job of position classification is reduced to 31 steps, each of which is presented briefly and clearly. Classification experts may disagree with some of the technical points involved, but no librarian can expect to find a more helpful tool. In addition there are available the model plans prepared by the A.L.A. for public libraries (27) and for college and university libraries (28). These are models in the sense that they suggest desirable classes of positions, class titles, wording of class specifications, etc. They are not models in the sense that they are to be copied blindly. No library, of course, can expect to adopt the classification scheme of another library. To be meaningful the scheme must be made to order. Wilson describes the evolution of the A.L.A.'s Classification and Pay Plans for Libraries in Institutions of Higher Education and offers some useful advice on how to use those plans in an actual situation (29). Grazier describes in detail the establishment of such a plan in the Pennsylvania State College Library (30). A lengthy description of the creation of the University of California Library's position-classification plan is also available (31). There is an equally detailed description of how a position-classification plan was evolved for the Santa Barbara Public Library (32). This was a demonstration in position classification, under the direction of Louis J. Kroeger and sponsored by the California Library Association. Classification and salary problems relating to special libraries are discussed in a brief article by Goff (33).

There are many examples of good position-classification plans (or class specifications set up under such plans) in use in libraries to which reference can be made. At the Federal level, there are the Class Specifications of the U. S. Civil Service Commission, which govern the allocation of positions in the Library of Congress, the Public Library of the District of Columbia, and most of the departmental libraries of the executive branch (34). The Library of Congress has prepared a longer and fuller statement (now somewhat out of date) which describes the application to its positions of the Civil Service Commission's more general class specifications (35). (The Library of Congress is not a part of the competitive civil service system of the Federal government but operates within the civil service framework for position-classification purposes.) In the field of academic libraries, brief printed descriptions are available of the position-classification plans of Vassar College Library (36) and the Louisiana State University Library (37). Much more comprehensive reports are available on the plans of the Columbia University Libraries (38), the University of California Library (31, 39), and the Reference Department of the New York Public Library (6). A critical review of the last two mentioned plans (and that of the Yale University Library) was written by Shaw (40). In the public library field, full descriptions are available for position-classification plans in operation in the Newark Public Library (41) and the Los Angeles County Public Library (42), among others.

The chief value of a formal classification plan is for use in connection with such personnel actions as staff selection, salary determination (discussed in Section E of this chapter), lines of promotion, and in-service training. The use of the position-classification plan appears to be not generally understood. Among the few items describing the use of position-classification plans in personnel actions are Chapter 4 of the report of the Civil Service Assembly (2), the article by Baruch (20), and an article by Bartolini with application to university libraries (43). Equally important and seldom treated in the literature is the matter of current maintenance and administration of the position-classification plan. Again one must go to Chapter 10 of the Civil Service Assembly's book for a detailed consideration of the subject (2). The A.L.A. manual has a brief statement on the subject on pages 44, 46-47 (7), and the Columbia University Libraries' position-classification plan is prefaced by a five-page statement on procedures for its current administration (38). The uses of a position-classification plan and its current maintenance are in need of further attention in the general personnel literature as well as in the literature of library administration.

D. Standards of Performance

One of the by-products of a work analysis is its possible use in developing more rational standards of job performance. Such standards indicate the amount of time a proficient employee should spend on a job or the amount of work he should be able to do in a given length of time. Such standards are more applicable to clerical and routine jobs than to complex jobs requiring higher degrees of skill and professional judgment. The establishment of such standards involves general management policies, but relates to personnel administration insofar as such standards may be used in evaluating an employee's work (see Chapter IV, E) or as a guide to in-service training (see Chapter IV, D). Yoder describes briefly the method for setting job standards in

industry based on time study (44). The U. S. Civil Service Commission has issued a guide to performance standards in the Federal service (45). Shaw describes the program to establish performance standards for employees of the U. S. Department of Agriculture Library (46). It should be pointed out that performance standards, like job descriptions and classification plans, must be tailor-made for each organization.

E. Salaries and Salary Administration

The single most important use of a position-classification plan is as a base for establishing in fact the principle of equal pay for equal work. The establishment and administration of a pay plan is, however, distinctly different and separate from that of a position-classification plan. A position-classification plan has additional uses, and a pay plan rests on other considerations than solely the classification of positions by their constituent duties and responsibilities. Probably the most important of these other considerations is the competition for potential employees from other libraries or other occupations, as manifested in higher salary offers.

One source of salary information for the library profession as a whole is the report of the 1949 nation-wide survey of approximately 19,000 employees in all types of libraries, conducted by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the A.L.A. (47). There is a great deal of information in this report, but it is presented almost entirely in the form of percentages and subjected to a minimum of statistical analysis or interpretation.

In the spring of 1952 the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration made an extensive salary survey (48). More than a thousand public, state, academic, and special libraries reported salary ranges, usually at \$25 intervals, for approximately 25,000 professional and nonprofessional library positions. The findings provide data for various classes of professional and nonprofessional positions, for the nine geographic regions, and by sizes and types of libraries. A brief summary of the survey appears in the A.L.A. Bulletin (49). The report states that the median yearly salary for the position of junior librarian was \$3281 as of March 1, 1952. This figure can be compared with the A.L.A.'s Minimum Library Salary Standards for 1952 which suggest minimum salary schedules for the various classes of positions and grades for the model classification and pay plans and which set \$3294 as the recommended entrance salary for the lowest class of professional position (50). This 1952 revision like those of 1948 and 1951 is interesting also for its recognition of the necessity of adjusting salaries to increases in the cost of living. The Consumers' Price Index, on which these adjustments are based, is issued monthly by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, first as a news release and subsequently in the Monthly Labor Review. New salary scales for individual libraries are frequently reported in issues of the Library Journal.

The salaries paid in some 150 to 200 college and university libraries have been reported seven times between 1943 and 1953 in College and Research Libraries, and presumably will continue to be reported at frequent intervals (51). These reports are reasonably full, showing for each library the total expenditures for staff salaries and for student employees, the total number of employees, and the minimum and maximum salaries for several classes of positions. At least twice in recent years, the American Association of

University Professors has reported on average salaries paid to persons in the four main academic ranks in some 40 selected colleges and universities across the nation (52). Although librarians are not specifically indicated in these reports, they may be of some interest to academic librarians because of the extensive discussion that accompanies the data. Recently the 1951/52 salaries of 33,000 full-time faculty members of all ranks in 68 land-grant institutions were compiled and published by the U. S. Office of Education (53). One other study worthy of note, although the figures are for 1946/47 and are not likely to be brought up to date, is the report of a survey by the U. S. Office of Education of faculty salaries in 642 colleges and universities (54).

Current salary data for individual public libraries are not so easily found as for college and university libraries. Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, has compiled and published data for 1951 and 1952 on minimum and maximum salaries paid employees in 23 different classes of positions in 25 large American public libraries (55). In 1949 Kaiser summarized minimum and maximum salaries for junior librarians in about 40 public libraries (56). It is unfortunate that current reporting is not found more often for the nation as a whole. At least three state library agencies, those of California (57), Indiana (58), and Washington (59) compile and publish data on salaries and other aspects of working conditions in public libraries of the state. The Municipal Yearbook regularly carries salary data for some 20 city officials, including the chief librarian, of cities with over 10,000 population. In the 1952 volume, the minimum, maximum, quartiles, and mean distributions of salaries were presented for librarians of cities in each of six population groups (60). The same volume also lists the entrance and top pay rates for some dozen or more positions such as junior clerk-typist, in selected cities by region (61). A much more extensive survey of salaries (and other working conditions) of office workers in major cities is conducted annually by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and reported in its bulletin series (62, 63).

The most recent pay schedule for Federal employees (including librarians) under the Classification Act is contained in Public Law 201, 82d Congress.

Data on salaries of school librarians are even more fragmentary than for public librarians. The nation-wide surveys of librarians in 1949 (47) and 1952 (48) include school librarians, as do the compilations of the Indiana (58) and Washington (59) state library agencies. The one important study which deals exclusively with school librarians' salaries is a 25-page report of the N.E.A. Research Division which presents and analyzes in detail data on 1949 salaries and working conditions for over 1,500 school librarians in 165 school systems in cities of over 30,000 population (64). A great deal of information on teachers' salaries is available and occasionally includes some specific references to school librarians, on both the national and state levels. Since these are numerous, generally available, and well-known, they will not be reviewed here.

For information on the salaries of special librarians, one can go to the general sources (47, 48) or to surveys of subgroups of special libraries. The only recent and general report, by Hausdorfer, considers salary data for over 1,600 members of the Special Libraries Association in 1947 (65). A survey of 1952 salary standards in libraries in the medical sciences was conducted and published by the Medical Library Association (66).

Given a position-classification plan and data on current salaries offered by other libraries, there are several other considerations to be observed in establishing a pay plan. These have to do with such things as the number, size, and frequency of salary increments; the question of overlapping or mutually exclusive pay scales for adjoining classes of positions; and determination of the relationship between the scales for professional and for non-professional positions. There are many good discussions of these topics in the general literature of personnel administration. Doohar and Marquis have brought together in one volume some of the best materials published by the American Management Association on developing a systematic and impartial basis for pay rates (67). This volume constitutes a comprehensive survey of principles and techniques of wage and salary administration and management's experience in putting such plans into practice. For the experience of private business, specifically of nine companies, see the National Industrial Conference Board's Employee Salary Plans in Operation (68). In regard to salary practices of government bodies, Litchfield reviews five main factors that should be considered in setting salaries (69). Richey makes the case for setting government salary scales mainly on the basis of one of the factors discussed by Litchfield, the level of prevailing wages paid generally for the same kind of work (70). Baruch, in a companion article to Richey's, explains specifically how to make such a wage survey (20). Even more practical discussions of wage surveys (and of other aspects of salary administration) are to be found on pages 68-75 in Pfiffner and Lane's A Manual for Administrative Analysts (3) and in Chapter 4 of Municipal Personnel Administration (22).

For academic institutions generally and libraries in particular, there is little in the literature that is directly relevant to the technical aspects of establishing and maintaining a salary plan. Badger and Mayer, who summarized the 1946/47 survey by the U. S. Office of Education of faculty salaries in 642 colleges and universities, give considerable attention to the factors used to determine those salaries (54). The most important factors were found to be the degrees held and the number of years of service. An equally detailed analysis of salary administration practices is available for 111 state teachers colleges in 37 states, as of 1943/44 (71). Woodburne summarizes salary practices and policies in the 46 colleges and universities which he surveyed in 1947-48 (72). One of the major problems encountered by college and university librarians is in achieving equality in pay with teaching faculty. In equating salaries of the two groups recognition should be made of the additional months of work required of the library staff.

In the school field there is available an unusually clear pamphlet on salary scheduling, published by the N.E.A. Research Division (73). Although some of the content is peculiar to school situations, all librarians can profit from the discussion of such points as the need for a salary schedule, the desirable relationship between minimum and maximum salaries, the extent of recognition to be given to advanced training and to experience, and automatic versus conditional increments. The A.L.A.'s Minimum Library Salary Standards for 1952 (50) contain a few notes applicable to salary administration, but the best available source on this subject in library literature is the chapter on "Salary Scheduling" in the A.L.A.'s Position Classification and Salary Administration in Libraries (7). The authors discuss the important factors to consider in setting the scale - the duties of the job,

competing salary offers, library standards, the general economic situation, and the financial resources of the library. They also suggest some valuable ways by which to apply the salary scale to best advantage, namely, by setting first a rate for key positions and then for others, by establishing a salary range for each grade of positions, by providing for cost-of-living adjustments, and by establishing salaries high enough for a career service. Dickason (personnel officer of the University of Illinois) has written an analysis of possible approaches to salary determination in university libraries (74).

Incentive pay, common in industry, has not been widely used in public jurisdictions, and hence in libraries, because of government policy. One variation of this is the practice in a number of libraries of giving leaves of absence and financial aid for professional development. Such practices are discussed in Chapter IV, D.

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Chapter III

SELECTION OF EMPLOYEES

A. General

Selection of a qualified staff is the heart of successful personnel administration in any organization. Adequate selection is dependent upon a thorough knowledge of the position to be filled, upon the abilities and qualities required of the person to fill the position, and upon a knowledge of the condition of the labor market. Any program of personnel selection must be based on a sound position-classification system as described in Chapter II. The problem of selection lies in finding the persons who possess the abilities, knowledge, and personal qualities which best meet the requirements of the positions as described in the classification plan.

Both industry and the public service accept the principle that personnel should be selected solely on a merit basis, i.e., for the ability to do the job rather than for other considerations. Although the principles of selection are the same, public personnel procedures differ from procedures in industry. The merit system in the public service generally implies a program of recruiting and selection by means of competitive tests, a process which is frequently performed by or under the supervision of an independent civil service commission. Recruiting, testing, and selection of public personnel under the merit system is best described by Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl in the section on staffing (1). Libraries operating under civil service will find this discussion pertinent.

While public personnel selection calls for competitive tests and the establishment of rosters of eligible candidates, industrial personnel selection is generally based on an analysis of the individual job application form plus a personal interview with the applicant. These steps may be supplemented by oral or written examinations. The greater part of Halsey's book, Selecting and Inducting Employees, is devoted to programs for recruiting, interviewing, and testing employees in industry (2). Libraries which make appointments directly rather than from civil service rosters will find this handbook pertinent. Since some libraries employ large numbers of clerical workers as well as professional librarians, a book such as Richards and Rubin's How to Select and Direct the Office Staff may be useful (3). A briefer treatment of the selection and placement of clerical workers, with concise statements on the best known office employment tests, is furnished by Peterson (4).

In selecting employees, consideration should be given to those within as well as to those without the system. A consistent failure to consider present employees for promotion not only lowers staff morale but also deprives the organization of the highest abilities of its employees. On the other hand, an organization which limits its selection to candidates within the system will suffer stagnation. The extent to which present employees may be considered for promotion will depend on the adequacy of the organization's career program. In such a program employees at the lower grades must be selected for their potential development as well as for their ability to perform the immediate job. Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl discuss this problem in two chapters: "Selection from Outside the Service" and "Selection from Inside

the Service" (1). Calhoun discusses the problem from the standpoint of industrial personnel in his chapter on "Problems of Job Status" (5).

A discussion of general principles for selecting library employees is presented by Gant in the University of Chicago Library Institute volume (6). Goldhor, in a study made in 1941, compared employee selection practices of three public libraries under civil service (Los Angeles, Oakland, and St. Paul) with three not under civil service (Detroit, Portland, and Providence) (7). He concluded that there was no substantial superiority of one type over the other in the use of approved methods of employee selection. The significant factor was not the presence or absence of civil service but the degree of attention given to effective administration of the personnel system.

In the academic library field there is an apparent conflict between the adoption of the selection techniques of industry and public service and the less formal methods used by colleges and universities to secure teaching faculty. The method of selection may depend on whether the library staff is considered professorial, administrative, or professional. Academic status of college and university librarians is discussed in Chapter V, C of this essay. Wilson and Tauber summarize the selection practices in university libraries (8), and Lyle describes less formal procedures for selecting the staff of a college library (9). There is need for a comparative analysis of selection procedures in academic libraries similar to that provided by Goldhor for public libraries. Much can be gained, however, from reading Woodburne's discussion of methods and problems in selecting teaching faculty, gathered in his study of procedures in 46 institutions (10), and from the recommendations for a positive faculty selection program, contained in the report by the President's Commission on Higher Education and referred to in Chapter I, A. School librarians may profit from reading part one of an N.E.A. report on personnel practices in city schools which deals with selection and appointment procedures (11). A more comprehensive work on teacher selection is the study published by the American Association of Examiners and Administrators of Educational Personnel (12).

B. Qualifications

In his book on Selecting and Inducting Employees, Halsey notes that to choose the right person for the right job, the employer must have before him two types of information: a statement of the special qualities most significant for success on the job, taken from the job analysis; and a statement of each candidate's qualifications as determined by previous experience, training, tests, and interviews (2). Halsey devotes the remainder of the chapter to a discussion of how to determine "vocationally significant qualities" in an individual.

Are there vocationally significant qualities in librarians? In addition to the special requirements for given library positions, is there a common corps of professional characteristics, knowledge, skills, and attributes that are capable of being described and that can be determined by testing? The literature of librarianship offers two types of data on personal qualifications. First, there are studies which describe the characteristics of librarians in service. The emphasis here has been largely on such external elements as education and experience, rather than the more elusive personal

characteristics. Such a study in the academic field was made by Kraus who examined librarians whose institutions were members of the Association of American Universities (13). By comparing data for 1933 with those for 1948, he was able to point out changes in formal training and experience of university librarians during the 15-year interval. Alvarez described the professional qualifications of head librarians in a survey of 241 public libraries in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin (14). A number of tabulations have also been made of the external characteristics of successful librarians as determined by listings in various biographical dictionaries. One such survey was made by Labb of 380 librarians appearing in Who's Who in America, 1948-49 (15). By far the most comprehensive efforts at finding a representative profile of public librarians in service is the study by Bryan as part of the Public Library Inquiry (16). Part II of her book deals with the personal and economic characteristics of public librarians, their educational status, and their attitudes toward librarianship as a career. To appraise the personality of librarians in relation to the profession Bryan used a test known as the Guilford-Martin Inventory of Factors.

The second type of library literature dealing with the personal qualities of successful librarians are those empirical studies of the ideal librarian which are frequently tied in with discussions of education for librarianship. One of the most penetrating and detailed analyses was made by Reece in a field investigation conducted in 1947 (17). In connection with the reorganization of the curriculum at the Columbia University School of Library Service, Reece interviewed employers and supervisors in libraries over the country, who were considered to be representative of progressive professional thinking and achievement. His findings deal with personal attributes and attitudes as well as with knowledge of books and ideas and with technical skills. These findings substantiate Martin's statement that the characteristics which distinguish librarianship as a profession are skill in the functional organization of materials of communication, understanding of the contents of these materials, and insight into their use in the educational experience (18). Howe's article on the ideal and potential librarian discusses the personality traits of the librarian as foreshadowed in his behavior as a library school student (19).

Special requirements for university librarians are summarized in Wilson and Tauber's volume on university library administration (8). Similarly, Lyle summarizes the qualifications of college librarians as expressed in professional literature (9). McDiarmid considers the experience factor in assessing the qualification of college and university librarians (20). A comprehensive list of references is given by Thompson in his article on qualifications of college and university library administrators (21).

A presentation of the various points of view as to the qualifications and education for special librarians is presented in articles by Henkle (22) and Waters (23). The problems of qualification, recruiting, and training of one type of special librarian, the science librarian, are discussed in articles by Gilman (24) and Voigt (25).

In the field of education considerable attention has been given to the measurement of teacher characteristics and the prediction of teaching success. Barr discusses studies dealing with secondary school teacher selection based

on correlations which predict success (26). Baker and Remmers do a similar job for college teachers (27). The library field lacks comparable studies which provide analyses of qualities significant in job success. Such studies are needed in the development of validated selection methods. In 1939-40 a Committee on Tests and Measurements of the Association of American Library Schools proposed a scientific study of what constitutes success in library work. The study was not undertaken because of inability to secure foundation funds.

The important trend in the public service toward the recognition of an administrative career service has led to the investigation of qualities and attributes necessary for leadership and the methods for assessing such capacities in prospective candidates. This literature is described in Chapter IV, D of this essay.

C. Recruitment

Recruitment has been defined by Halsey as the development of a source of supply for the type of applicants needed by an organization to fill job vacancies (2). Unless the employer has more than one applicant for each job from which to choose, there can be no selection in a real sense. In a tight employment market, which has been the case since the early days of World War II, recruitment is a serious problem for libraries. Library associations have given considerable attention to this problem by encouraging more and better qualified young people to enter library schools. Recruiting for the profession, therefore, has received greater attention in library literature than recruiting for the individual job. A useful bibliography on Recruiting for Librarianship was prepared by Grimes in 1949 for the Committee on Recruiting of the Library Public Relations Council (28). Much imaginative work of librarians has gone into this recruiting program.

The filling of vacancies in libraries has generally been accomplished on an individual basis rather than as part of a planned recruitment program. Bryan describes public library recruiting practices (Chapter 8) as reflecting the chronic scarcity of librarians (16). New staff members are recruited mainly from those who apply and from within the circle of acquaintance of existing employees. At most, a canvass of library schools is made. A number of large public libraries, however, have carried on extensive recruitment programs, particularly for nonprofessional workers. The A.L.A. Board of Education for Librarianship has copies of recruiting literature from such large public libraries as Baltimore, Detroit, Los Angeles, and New York. An attractive folder, The Librarian in the Federal Civil Service, was issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission to recruit librarians for government service (29). Very little has been written describing or evaluating recruitment programs in individual libraries, except in the unpublished internal reports of library personnel directors. A number of such reports are on file in the A.L.A. Headquarters Library and are available on loan.

In the 1920's some library schools were conducted by large public libraries, a system which assured these libraries of a source of professional staff. Following Williamson's recommendations on library education in 1923, all library schools gradually became integral parts of institutions of higher education (30). The libraries of these institutions should therefore be in

an advantageous position in their selection program.

The placement services of library schools undoubtedly constitute the major source for the recruitment of professional librarians. Wulfeketter, in her article, "Placement Policies and Practices of the Library Schools of the United States," summarizes information on these services obtained by letter from 26 accredited schools (31). Blasingame and Hess describe the placement service at Columbia University School of Library Service (32). The American Library Association no longer operates a placement service but will give advice to librarians in planning recruitment programs. A placement service is available to members of the Special Libraries Association, the Medical Library Association, and several other specialized library associations. A number of state library extension agencies also provide limited placement services. The Junior Members Round Table of the American Library Association established a placement service in 1952, noting job vacancies in their bi-monthly bulletin. The A.L.A. Bulletin, the Library Journal, and some state library bulletins accept classified advertising for "librarians wanted" and "positions wanted." A summary of the historical development of placement activity on the part of library schools and other agencies is published as Chapter VI of the proceedings of the Princeton Conference on Library Education (33). The conference recommended that "... the American Library Association aid in the establishment of an agency for the placement of librarians, the expense to be borne by the interested parties." In 1952 the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration appointed the Subcommittee on Placement Service to investigate the needs of the profession for a placement agency and to draw up one or several plans for the establishment of a placement service including details of organization, operation, and financing.

A useful reference work on operating a placement office is Kitson and Newton's, Helping People Find Jobs (34). The authors deal with registering of the applicant, handling job requests, making the placement, and performing the necessary "follow-up." They also describe the organization of a placement office, suggest forms and records to be used, and discuss the difficulties in placement of special groups. The experience of the U. S. Employment Service in providing placement service in professional occupations is described in a handbook designed for the use of agency personnel (35). The sections on developing work history information and on assisting the applicant to prepare an employment application should be of interest both to librarians seeking and offering employment.

The use of student assistants in clerical and subprofessional jobs in school and college libraries provides one of the most fertile sources of recruits for the library profession. In recent years school librarians in a number of states have sponsored associations of student library assistants to promote interest in library work and to offer vocational guidance. Turk describes the Indiana association (36), and Lowe proposes a national association of student library assistants (37).

Libraries planning a recruitment program would do well to examine the experience of industry and government. In both areas, the practice of waiting until the applicant knocks on the door has been replaced with a positive policy of going after the most desirable candidates. In industry, this can be seen in efforts to recruit college seniors, as described in a publication of

the Bureau of National Affairs (38). The chapter on recruiting in Halsey's book constitutes a good general discussion of the principles of recruiting for industry (2). In the public service, impetus was given to positive recruiting by the report of the Committee on Recruiting Applicants for the Public Service, prepared by the Civil Service Assembly in 1942 (39). These recommendations have borne fruit at least in one respect in the closer articulation between the U. S. Civil Service Commission and American colleges and universities - a source for recruiting candidates for a career service. Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl summarize these positive developments in their chapter on recruiting (1).

D. Interviewing

The personal interview is one of the most important parts of the selection process. The interview can be valid and dependable to the extent to which the interviewer is trained and the interview is planned. Halsey cites three purposes of the employment interview: "to find out how well qualified the applicant is for the position in question, to give the applicant information he should have in reaching a decision as to whether or not he should accept the position, and to make a friend for the organization" (2).

In industry the interview is usually the major method for evaluating the prospective candidate. The interview is generally accompanied by the examination of the application form and the checking of references. (Examples of application forms, patterned interview forms, and reference inquiry forms are included in the American Management Association's handbook of personnel forms (40).) In an increasing number of cases the interview is followed by more formal and objective testing procedures. In government agencies operating under civil service, interviewing of prospective candidates for a job usually takes place after candidates have passed formal examinations and have been certified to a register of eligibles. This procedure is best described in Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl in the section on staffing (1). Interviewing techniques are the same, however, regardless of the point in the selection process at which the interview takes place.

The standard work on interviewing is Bingham and Moore's practical volume, How to Interview, which covers all types of interviews and includes a chapter on "Applying for a Position," written from the applicant's point of view (41). Bingham and Moore note two types of evidence to be gained from the personal interview; verification and amplification of written statements; and observation of behavior, personality, and expression. Four crucial questions need to be determined in an interview with the applicant; How can he do the work now? How readily can he learn new duties? What is his attitude toward the job? Will the candidate fit into the job?

The American Management Association's Manual of Employment Interviewing also offers a precise exposition of working principles and techniques of employment interviewing (42). It describes types of interviews, recommends techniques, and reproduces samples of such "selection aids" as personnel requisition forms, job specifications, placement rating scales, and interview record forms. This manual brings together diverse data on employment interviewing gathered from some fifty companies. Halsey's chapter on "Improving the Effectiveness of the Interview" summarizes field experience in both

nondirective (free) and directive (controlled) interviews (2). His 20 suggestions for conducting a controlled interview are particularly useful. The appendix contains numerous examples of employment forms. A brief, but very practical, guide to good interviewing is contained in the chapter by Drake in Management Leader's Manual which discusses interviewing under the following topics: 1) arranging the circumstances, 2) planning the course of the interview, and 3) conditioning the interviewee (43). A new approach to interviewing, designed to discover personality, attitudes, and behavioral insights in the candidate, is the "situation technique" used by the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission (44).

Many of the techniques used in selection interviews are also useful in interviewing employees for merit rating, promotion (which is a form of selection), grievances or personal problems, or at termination of employment. Specific references on these phases are given in Chapters IV, E (merit rating) and VI, D (counseling).

E. Testing

Formal selection and promotion of employees through the use of competitive tests is the cornerstone for the merit system in government. Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl indicate, in their chapter on methods of examination, that such tests may take the form of rating of training and experience, but the most widely used form of examination in public jurisdictions is the written test (1). Close in importance is the job performance test, such as those given to typists, stenographers, and operators of vehicles. The oral test, popular in industry, has not been as widely used under civil service because of the difficulty in developing reliable and valid measures and of keeping a reviewable record which will answer public suspicion of political influence. Yet such traits as interest, personal adjustment, and leadership ability are difficult to measure except by personal contact. A basic work on the use of oral tests in personnel selection was issued in 1943 by the Civil Service Assembly (45). This may be supplemented by Maslow's survey of current practices (46). The term "oral test" as used here refers to the personal examination given as part of the testing process and not to the oral interview with the employer given as part of the selection process. The latter practice is customary in libraries as well as in government and industry.

One of the most comprehensive and practical discussions on developing a testing program in industry is contained in Halsey's volume on Selecting and Inducting Employees (2). He discusses the planning and administering of tests of mental abilities, manual dexterity, mechanical trades, aptitudes and proficiency in office occupations, personality, temperament, and interests. Existing standard tests are described and the names of publishers are given. Another practical guide to test construction and administration as applied to industry is contained in Mee's Personnel Handbook (47). This is especially useful because of the illustrations and facsimiles of sections from well-known tests. One of the best and most widely used textbooks in testing is Bingham's Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing (48). In language of the layman, Bingham discusses the theory of testing, the types of tests and their purposes, how to select and administer tests, and how to evaluate their results.

Although the development of reliable and valid tests is a job for the

expert in testing, the librarian who is called upon to assist the expert would do well to examine the textbook on the Construction and Analysis of Achievement Tests which was prepared in 1947 by Dorothy C. Adkins, chief examiner of the U. S. Civil Service Commission (49). This reference work, prepared from the experience in developing tests for government employees, gives practical advice for the preparation of written and performance tests of achievement for predicting job success. The text introduces readers to the problems of planning written and performance tests, describes how to construct the tests, and explains how to analyze test results, using basic statistical tools. The work includes numerous examples of tests and test items. With the exception of technical sections, library personnel officers will find it readable and informative.

Two general guides to existing tests and test literature are volumes of the Mental Measurements Yearbook (50) and the Handbook of Employee Selection (51). The former gives encyclopedic data on specific tests and the latter consists of abstracts of testing literature. Although few tests described by these guides deal precisely with library personnel, a number of the general tests might be applicable for clerical assistants and for evaluating certain aspects of professional librarianship.

Formal written testing for library positions has been almost entirely limited to civil service testing for municipal, county, state, and Federal libraries. Bryan notes (Chapter 8) that only a minority of public libraries, mostly large systems, have established formal testing procedures (16). One of the few reports on such testing programs is the description of the preparation and administration of the tests (written and oral) for the position of director of the Chicago Public Library in 1951 (52).

Columbia University School of Library Service, with its comprehensive examination, pioneered in the development of written tests in the field of library science (53). The University of Illinois Library School Placement Examination, although designed to measure student ability to do graduate work in library science, i.e., "curriculum placement," has possibilities as a testing device for library placement or for professional certification. Shearouse describes the preparation, administration, and analysis of this test (54). The standardized tests used by the University of Denver Library School are discussed in the article by Howe (19). Oberheim relates experience at Iowa State College with tests for predicting success of student assistants in college library work (55, 56). Hobson's study on testing for qualities of leadership and ability among academic administrators is closely related to the problems of testing librarians in academic institutions (57).

One of the newer forms of testing which might bear consideration by library administrators is the group oral, now being used with considerable success in a number of state and municipal jurisdictions. It is designed to bring out leadership abilities and personal characteristics not readily obtained by written tests (58). A noteworthy experiment in group testing was conducted during World War II in selecting personnel for the highly secret Office of Strategic Services. A fascinating report of this first attempt by American psychologists and psychiatrists to design and carry out selection procedure in conformity with Gestalt principles is told in the volume, Assessment of Men (59). See also the earlier reference to the "situation

technique" interview (44).

Library personnel directors interested in obtaining assistance in the development of testing programs and in examining examples of existing tests should consult the Civil Service Assembly, 1313 East Sixtieth Street, Chicago. Libraries or local civil service commissions that are members of this agency will have access to the assembly's extensive file of tests used in the public service, including a number of tests prepared for library personnel. A similar service, with emphasis on mechanical trades in industry, is available from state employment offices affiliated with the U. S. Employment Service.

The development of an effective testing program is one of the most difficult jobs in personnel administration. In recent years much has been done by both industry and government toward the development of more valid tests, which will predict job success, reduce labor turnover, speed up training time, and generally improve morale. Libraries, by and large, have not made effective use of these more formal devices for measuring the capabilities of prospective employees.

F. Probation

Probation is the policy of considering no appointment as final until the appointee has demonstrated his capacity on the job. The period of probation that an employee serves before he becomes a permanent member of the staff should be considered as an integral part of the selection process. It is during this period, Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl point out, that a check is made upon the whole selection and placement procedure (1). Probation is "a means by which a square peg can be removed from a round hole and more completely fitted in a square one." The most complete treatment of this subject is in Placement and Probation in the Public Service, published by the Civil Service Assembly in 1946 (60). This report suggests that there is "reason to believe that more separations should take place during the probationary period than is now typical" and that appointing officers "be required to take positive steps either to accept or reject the probationer at the end of the probationary period." The use of probationary periods in public libraries is discussed by Bryan in Chapter 8 of her survey volume (16). Probation is closely related to induction and in-service training discussed in Chapter IV of this essay. It is also related to the question of tenure in academic libraries, discussed in Chapter V, B.

G. Professional Certification

For almost half a century American librarians have shown an interest in professional certification, the process (legal or voluntary) by which an individual is given the privilege of pursuing a profession. Certification is designed both as a protection of the public and of the individual in the profession. A clear statement of the purposes of library certification and its relationship to civil service examining is given in Belsley's article in Current Issues in Library Administration (61). Although certification has been used widely in other professions (teaching, medicine, law, nursing, and architecture) it has not been uniformly accepted or applied in American libraries. This fact is obvious from periodic surveys of library certification,

conducted by the A.L.A. Board of Education for Librarianship, which include information on librarians of municipal and county libraries, librarians of institutions of higher education, and school and teacher-librarians (62, 63). Public school librarians are also included in the 1952-53 edition of Woellner and Wood's annual digest of educational certification (64). The extent and nature of library certification is indicated in Linscheid's report on the current status of voluntary and legal certification in the United States, a survey made by the New Mexico Library Association (65).

Kraemer has made a thorough study of library certification, approaching the problem by comparison with the teaching profession where certification has long been used (66). She concludes that, despite the many problems to be solved in the field of certification, "librarians have felt that it is a necessary step in improving library personnel and in protecting individuals in the profession." Jordan discusses certification as applied to one specialized group, the medical librarian, citing the experiences in the field of medicine and public health (67). Certification of medical librarians is provided by a subcommittee of the Medical Library Association. A brief statement of this plan is contained in a pamphlet issued by the association (68).

One of the most comprehensive certification programs for public librarians is that recently undertaken in New York under the direction of a committee established in 1951 by the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York. General information on the formal examination may be secured from the Secretary of the Examination Committee, New York State Library, Albany.

The Council of State Governments has issued a summary of occupational licensing legislation in the states which will enable state library associations to compare the certification of librarians with that of other professions and trades (69).

As early as 1921 a proposal was made by an A.L.A. committee for a national certification board which would provide for several grades of certificates and would act as an accrediting agency for library schools (70). The board would also construct and administer examinations by which individuals without formal library school training could be awarded national certificates. A similar plan is in operation in Great Britain, where professional library competence is based primarily on a national system of examinations rather than on formal education in library science. In an effort to determine whether this type of library certification, based on a national examination, has application in the United States, Kavanaugh and Wescott conducted an opinion survey of large public libraries, state certification boards, and state civil service commissions (71). With the possible exception of the certification boards, the groups consulted did not feel the need for a comprehensive examination at the present time. Many of the libraries feared that such a national examination would tend to lower professional standards, would discourage attendance at accredited library schools, and would be prohibitive in cost.

H. Special Groups of Employees

There are a number of classes of employees which, for one reason or

another, need to be given special attention in the selection process. The employment or reemployment of veterans may pose problems for the library administrator, especially in civil service jurisdictions where veterans' preference is embodied in the law. A good discussion of veterans' preference in public employment is contained in Chapter 6 of Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl (1). The reemployment rights of veterans are presented in question and answer form in a handbook issued by the U. S. Bureau of Veterans' Reemployment Rights (72).

Another group which should be given special consideration is the physically handicapped, who have increased greatly with World War II and police action in Korea. The President's Committee on National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week and a number of other groups have been urging employers to consider the hiring of persons whose physical disability is not a work disability. A comprehensive volume on job placement of handicapped workers, prepared by Bridges in 1946, indicates that physical disability need not be work disability if the placement officer matches the abilities and limitations of the worker with the requirements of the job (73). Special application of these principles for libraries is discussed in an article by Korb (74). Bryan, in Chapter 8, indicates the nature and extent of policies toward the employment of veterans and nonveterans with physical handicaps (16).

Because of the large percentage of women employed by libraries, the library administrator may need to be familiar with state and Federal legislation governing hours, wages, and working conditions of women. In 1944-46 the U. S. Women's Bureau issued a compilation of state labor laws for women, which has been brought up to date by annual supplements (75). Many state labor departments also issue compilations of laws and administrative regulations for their respective states dealing with conditions of work for women and minors. Maternity protection of employed women is the subject of a Women's Bureau bulletin which summarizes legislation and practices in government and industry (76).

Many public institutions have rules against nepotism, although the rules may be relaxed during periods of labor shortage. The right of married women to hold jobs has been established for more than a generation, but unemployment conditions of the depression years gave rise to considerable public criticism of employing women whose husbands held jobs. Matthews discusses the general economic and social implications of married women who work, with special reference to librarians (77).

There is no general survey of library practices relating to the employment of persons who belong to minority racial and religious groups, but Bryan has tabulated, in Chapter 8, such policies in the group of public libraries surveyed (16). A code of fair employment practices governs the Federal civil service and similar prohibitions against such discrimination have been written into the civil service regulations in many state and municipal jurisdictions. Ten states have so-called FEPC legislation prohibiting discrimination by private employers. A summary of such legislation and an extensive bibliography on fair employment practices are contained in a Public Affairs Bulletin of the Library of Congress (78). A brief guide to successful integration of minority workers is given in Chapter 13 of Southall's comprehensive volume on fair employment practices in industry (79).

Who is too old to work? This question is discussed by Wilcock in a pamphlet on employment problems of the older worker and what is being done to solve them (80). He recommends the acceptance of the principle that individual ability at any age is more important in relating men and jobs than exact age in years. This problem, of course, is closely related to retirement programs which are discussed in Chapter V of this essay.

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Chapter IV

DEVELOPMENT OF EMPLOYEES

A. General

The responsibility for personnel administration does not end with the selection of an employee and his placement on the job. Some provision must be made for introducing the new employee to his job and to his fellow workers and for providing the kind of supervision and training which will enable him to develop to his full capacity in the organization. Although much of the basic literature on supervision and training is written from the standpoint of industrial workers, many of the principles and some of the techniques are applicable to library personnel. In the public personnel field, Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl devote a chapter to "Staff Development and Training" in which they discuss training programs in government agencies (1). Herbert deals with the in-service training of public librarians on pages 88-96 of her book on personnel administration in public libraries (2). In the section on "Professional Development of the Staff," Wilson and Tauber summarize university library practices with regard to in-service training, opportunities for advanced study, and promotion (3).

B. Inducting the New Employee

The first step in any training program, and one which is likely to leave a permanent impression, is the introduction of the new employee to his job. Halsey cites three objectives of orientation or induction training: to give the new employee a feeling of confidence; to give him adequate information about the organization, the job, and the conditions of service; and to develop in him a feeling of pride in the organization (4). Suggested day-to-day orientation programs and check lists are included in the Halsey volume and in a report issued by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (5). The Michigan Civil Service Commission has prepared a practical manual for use by supervisors in helping the new employee adjust to his job (6). General principles of employee orientation have been adapted to library situations by the Junior Members Round Table of the American Library Association (7) and by St. John, who gives examples of orientation programs in several libraries (8). Three-fourths of the large libraries surveyed by Bryan in the Public Library Inquiry make use of some or all of the formal devices for inducting new staff members (9).

Orientation handbooks are useful for presenting data about the organization and conditions of employment. Many companies and government agencies issue attractive and informative handbooks, generally emphasizing privileges and benefits rather than rules and regulations. A study of format and content of 130 such handbooks was made by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (10). Outstanding among the numerous handbooks prepared for new library staff members are those issued by the New York Public Library (11) and the University of California Library (12). A number of libraries include general orientation data as part of more extensive staff procedural manuals. A collection of staff personnel manuals, maintained by the A.L.A. Office of Personnel Administration, is available on loan to libraries. (See also discussion of employee publications in Chapter VI, G of this essay.)

A number of books and articles have been written in recent years to help employees to be successful in their jobs. Drucker offers sound advice to prospective employees without the usual attempts at cleverness (13). An example of an effective appeal to employees to develop better work habits is the brochure, entitled Less Fatigue More Work, issued by the U. S. Department of Agriculture (14).

C. Supervising the Employee

Competent guidance and supervision are essential at every stage of an employee's service with an organization if his skills and abilities are to be fully utilized and if he is to find satisfaction in his job. It is on the supervisory level that personnel policies are given their real test. Cooper, in his handbook on the art of supervising people, emphasizes the need for leadership and understanding of human behavior patterns in exercising control over the work of others (15). Halsey (16) and Pfiffner (17) also deal with the means by which a supervisor can influence human behavior for the mutual benefit of the organization and the employee. These volumes discuss such topics as how to motivate the employee; how to give orders, review work, and make corrections; how to understand employee attitudes and what lies back of them; how to insure adequate communication of ideas; and how to recognize and handle grievances. The last portion of the Pfiffner volume deals with clinical approaches to troubled employees. (See also Chapter VI, D of this essay.) A collection of practical articles on supervision, including such topics as supervisory attitudes, productivity and morale, rating of employees, emotional problems on the job, and the supervisor's role as teacher, is contained in two handbooks issued by the American Management Association (18, 19). A brief popular treatment of the tenets of good supervision is presented in a 45-page pamphlet, ABC of Supervision (20). A practical guide for use by supervisors in teaching their employees and helping them to develop greater abilities on the job has been prepared by the Federal Security Agency (21). Chapter headings suggest the scope and tone of the publication: "Helping People Who Want to Develop," "Five Ways to Speed Learning," "Some Tools for Staff Development," and "The Climate in Which People Grow." The pamphlet includes a procedure for writing standards of performance.

Fay has adapted many of the general principles of good supervision to the library scene in a manual intended for use in large or medium-sized libraries (22). Stanford describes briefly the varied duties of a library supervisor and the traits needed for success, noting the failure of library schools to deal with this subject (23). Although few librarians will be selected primarily on the basis of their supervisory abilities, the library administrator must consider such qualifications along with others for all supervisory positions. A useful guide for evaluating qualities essential in a good supervisor, including sample evaluation forms, has been issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission (24).

D. In-service Training

"In-service training," according to an article by St. John, "is planned and organized training after entry on a job, pointed toward either increasing the effectiveness of the worker on his assigned task or fitting him for promotion. It may be formal or informal. It may take place on the job or after

hours. It may assume many different forms. It may consist of individual instruction or of group participation. This instruction may be carried out by the supervisor, by the training section, or by colleges or universities. Apprenticeship, internship, discussion groups, committee work, lectures, assigned reading, and correspondence courses, as well as formal class work, are all forms of in-service training. The only distinction between any other educational process and in-service training is that the latter is planned to accomplish a definite end in the interests of the employing agency" (8). Induction training, discussed earlier, may also be thought of as a form of in-service training.

Although the idea of on-the-job training is not new, shortages of trained personnel during World War II gave impetus to widespread formal programs for the training of workers both in industry and government. The highly successful Training Within Industry program, sponsored by the Federal government, was designed to develop in supervisors the skills of job instruction, job methods, and job relations which would form a basis for any industrial training program (25). It demonstrated that an organization could do much with little, provided it developed a nucleus of competent "training" personnel. The experts seem to agree that the most effective in-service training is done by the immediate supervisor on the job and that the major responsibility of the personnel officer is in organizing a program for such training, in giving technical advice and support to operating officials, and in teaching the supervisor how to teach. The National Industrial Conference Board has summarized some of the best experiences in industry, including a discussion of the philosophy of supervisory training, methods and techniques, and appropriate subjects (26). Industrial training methods of the last war and new techniques developed since then are presented in an article in *Fortune*, which describes successful experiences in a number of companies (27).

A thorough study of existing training programs in government agencies was made in 1941 by a committee of the Civil Service Assembly (28). The report of this committee constitutes a basic guide for public employee training, covering such topics as determining the need for training, administering the training program, selecting and developing the content, training methods, and evaluating the training program. A guide for planning supervisory training programs in Federal agencies, with a selected bibliography, has been issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission (29).

Libraries have been slow in recognizing the advantages of planned in-service training. The postwar shortage of trained librarians and the recent tendency for library schools to place greater emphasis on philosophy and principles rather than on techniques have accentuated the need for in-service training in libraries. Many libraries offer some form of induction training but somewhat fewer provide for systematic on-the-job training, according to a questionnaire survey of public and university libraries made by Ladenson (30). Bryan indicates in Chapter 10 of her survey volume that less than half of the metropolitan libraries (a few large and very few of the smaller libraries) surveyed had instituted systematic personnel training programs for their professional staffs (9). She summarizes the extent of training programs in public libraries under the following types of programs: 1) training for the specific position, 2) training for maintaining efficiency, 3) retraining for adoption of new processes, and 4) training for new responsibilities.

St. John applies the various industrial training devices to three categories of library problems: routines, professional work, and management activities (8). He cites experiences with training programs in various libraries and outlines a profession-wide program. The application of these industrial training techniques to library work, particularly to the training of clerical personnel, was explored by Heintz who precedes his discussion with a brief review of the Federal Training Within Industry Program (31). Wight believes that the TWI program holds little promise for training of professional librarians (except perhaps through regional institutes) but that it is applicable to the training of large groups of library clerical personnel (32).

A detailed blueprint for establishing a formal training program in libraries is presented by Stewart who analyzes the problems in such a program and how they can be met both by individual libraries and by the profession (33). Stewart lists 17 tenets to be followed in order to insure a successful training program. Such a program, he indicates, should be recognized as an integral part of personnel administration; it should have the backing of top management and the cooperation of the entire staff; it should develop strong supervisors; and it should profit from the experience of industry and government.

An interesting and informative forum on in-service training in libraries was conducted by the Staff Organizations Round Table (SORT) of the American Library Association (34). The forum included papers on training the staff to understand library policies, to participate in professional activities, to take part in community services, and to understand library processes. The group went on record as recommending profession-wide support and promotion of an in-service training program, the provision of a national coordinator, and a clearing house for information.

A number of articles in library journals have reported on experience with training programs in individual libraries. Tucker made a survey of in-service training programs in 17 large public libraries and evolved from this a series of criteria for evaluating such programs (35). In an examination of in-service training for college and university librarians, Wight recommends less formal methods of professional training such as staff committees, attendance at professional meetings, selective internship, great books programs, and sabbaticals as being more appropriate for professional personnel than the more formal programs based on experience in industry (36). He states that libraries must deal with the problem of professional versus clerical work assignments before they can profitably conduct any training program. Metcalf, Hirsch, and McCrum present three specific proposals for in-service training programs in college and university libraries (37). Dunlap describes the training classes for clerical workers offered by the Cincinnati Public Library (38). Staff training in one type of special library (a bank) is discussed by Miller, who points out the particular need for in-service training in special libraries (39). Persons trained in librarianship, she indicates, are seldom adequately equipped with the subject background or with the many and varied techniques peculiar to the special library. McDiarmid suggests a long-range training program for clerical and subprofessional employees of libraries (library technicians) to be given primarily by educational institutions rather than through on-the-job instruction which, he believes, tends to preserve the status quo (40).

There is an extensive body of literature on the use of various training devices such as forums, field trips, institutes, job rotation, internship, supervised reading, policy and procedure manuals, and understudyship. Many of these techniques are discussed in the volume, Employee Training in the Public Service (28), and in current articles in personnel journals. Much of the pioneering in group methods in recent years has been stimulated by the experimental work of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development, which is described briefly in Chase's book on Roads to Agreement (41). One of the many how-to-do-it books on training techniques, written in the lighter vein, is by Haas and Ewing (42). A book on preparation and use of visual aids by Haas and Packer has special application to employee training programs (43).

In the library field experience in the use of group study as a training device has been described by Fay (44); and the use of the discussion method in training librarians at the Los Angeles Public Library has been set forth by Carter and Seymour (45). Experience with staff institutes at Cleveland and Baltimore are described by Focke (46) and Stevens and McIntosh (47) respectively. Boardman describes the experience with a staff clinic at St. Paul (48).

Internship as a training device, especially in the development of specialists or administrators, has been given considerable attention by librarians, although it is in actual use in very few libraries. Internship, unlike other forms of training, is concerned not so much with increasing an employee's usefulness in the particular organization as it is in preparing him for the profession in general. A brief description of internship as it is applied in the various professions is given by Newell and Will who define it as "a phase of professional education in which a student works for a period of time in the field in order to develop a capacity to carry professional responsibility" (49). A committee of the Federal Personnel Council has prepared a guide to internship programs in the Federal government which suggests policies and practices on internship based on the experiences of a number of Federal agencies (50). Agg discusses the numerous obstacles as well as potentialities associated with library internship and cites experiences in several libraries (51). The experience with library internships in the Tennessee Valley Authority is described by Harris (52) and by Baker and Howard (53). Goodrum reports on the Library of Congress internship program which is designed not only for giving selected trainees a better knowledge of library practices but also for giving them a better understanding of what the Library of Congress has to offer other institutions (54). Wight believes that internship, despite its problems, offers great promise to the profession (32). A traveling internship was made available to one librarian in 1952-53 by a grant from the Fund for Adult Education, in cooperation with the A.L.A. This type of program, not yet reported on in library literature, permits an interneer to spend some time in a number of libraries.

Closely related to internship training are the programs for executive development which, in recent years, have been given considerable attention by both industry and government. Riegel has surveyed the executive development programs in fifty American corporations, appraising the programs and suggesting a motivating philosophy (55). Mace, of Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, also reports first-hand observations on

the manner in which various companies are undertaking to develop administrative talent (56). This study is closely related to other leadership studies being conducted at the Harvard Business School. Dooher and Marquis have compiled a handbook of techniques and case studies used in the development of executive talent, taken largely from publications of the American Management Association (57). Through the junior management and junior professional assistants programs, the U. S. Civil Service Commission has introduced a long-time career program for executives in the Federal government (58). These programs bear close following for their implication for libraries. Osteen, in an unpublished thesis, proposes that major library schools and adjacent large public libraries cooperate on a planned program of in-service training, using modern industrial methods, to develop a pool of capable executives available to the entire library profession (59).

The granting of time off for attendance of library staff members at professional meetings is a generally accepted practice. The extent to which travel or other expenses of university library staff members are paid by libraries is reported by Pope and Thompson (60). Yale University Library is one of a number of libraries which provide a fund to assist members of the staff in furthering their professional education by granting financial aid toward tuition fees and the expense of attending professional meetings (61). Many academic libraries also grant time off for part- or full-time advanced or specialized training or for independent research. The extent to which professional library staff members in 26 colleges and universities were given opportunity to pursue advanced work in their respective schools was revealed in a survey made by the staff association of the University of Washington (62). The practices in granting sabbatical leaves in college and university libraries are summarized in a statistical table in the *A.L.A. Bulletin* (63) and are discussed in more recent studies on faculty rank (see Chapter V, C of this essay). Bryan reports (pages 140, 220-21) the extent to which public librarians are given paid and unpaid leaves of absence for further education and training (9).

Exchange appointments, especially common in the teaching profession, have not been used as frequently in libraries. Will describes the experience in an exchange of public librarians between Portland, Ore., and Rochester, N. Y., noting the problems involved and the attitudes of the respective administrators (64). Since World War II there has been an increased interest in international exchanges and internships. Various aspects in establishing such exchanges are discussed in the preliminary memorandum by Williams and Noble for the Conference on International Cultural, Educational, and Scientific Exchanges (65). Lancour describes the successful internship program for foreign librarians established by the Rochester Public Library in 1946 (66). A comprehensive listing of the opportunities available to librarians for work and study abroad was prepared by Daniels (67).

A training problem which is peculiar to libraries relates to the use of part-time student assistants. The need for special personnel methods in job analysis, selection, supervision, and training for student assistants is suggested by Brown in a study of practices in six college libraries (68). A testing program for predicting success among student assistants is described by Oberheim and referred to in Chapter III, E of this essay. The method of selecting and training and the opportunities for promotion of library pages

in 43 public libraries are reported in a questionnaire study by Sherman (69).

In the school library a unique aspect of personnel is found in the encouragement of student employment for the educational value of work experience. School library clubs are frequently organized, and in recent years a number of state associations of student library assistants have been formed. References to these activities are given in Chapter III, C. Blanchard discusses methods of selection, training, and supervision of student assistants in high school libraries, concluding that the benefit to the student, the library, and the school outweighs the considerable time and effort spent in training (70). To help new members of the library profession to develop professionally and to be recognized by library leaders and prospective employers, the Junior Members Round Table of the American Library Association was established in 1931. During the war years the group was inactive but has since been reactivated (71).

One of the subject areas in which training is particularly important, but too often neglected, is that of the relations of employees with the public. Retail stores have long considered this an essential aspect of their training programs, and government agencies in recent years have been giving increased attention to promoting a higher level of service to patrons. A useful handbook in this field is Ruhl's Public Relations for Government Employees (72). A committee of the Minneapolis Public Library staff prepared an attractive and useful pamphlet on "how to be a model librarian" (73). The pamphlet deals, in a humorous vein, with attitudes and techniques in meeting the public. Warren and Roden discuss courtesy in the library in a section of Herbert's volume on public library personnel (74).

E. Evaluating an Employee's Work

One of the most difficult problems in personnel administration and one on which there is wide disagreement among the experts is the methods by which the employer can best evaluate the work of his employees. Such an evaluation is needed not only to assist the administrator in selecting candidates for promotion and salary advancement, but also to enable the employee to improve his performance. In current personnel literature somewhat greater emphasis is placed on the use of merit ratings as a method of employee guidance and training rather than as a basis for administrative action. Many writers point out that considerable skill and understanding is needed in administering a rating program; that a poor evaluation system or a good system poorly applied can do more harm than good.

Since any evaluation of an employee's performance must be well-grounded in psychology, some of the best general discussions of merit rating programs appear in textbooks on industrial psychology. Beaumont, for example, discusses the theories on which merit ratings are based, the several types of rating systems that have been developed, and their relative advantages and shortcomings (75). Tiffin summarizes some of the dangers as well as the values of merit rating, cautioning against too great emphasis on numerical values (76). Merit ratings serve their purpose most effectively, he says, when used in conjunction with other available information about the employee on the job.

A thorough analysis of policies and procedures for evaluating the performance of government employees is presented in Chapter 14 of the volume by Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl (1). They discuss requirements for an adequate reporting system and various methods of evaluation, including such rating schedules as man-to-man scales, graphic rating scales, the Probst service rating system, psychophysical scales, and the Ordway-Laffan plan. The most important single criterion of a sound evaluation program, they point out, is whether it fosters the development of good employee performance. These authors also discuss various efficiency rating plans in use in states and municipalities, including the California reports of performance. Footnotes indicate further information on each plan. Recent developments in this area are reported in such journals as Public Personnel Review and Personnel Psychology. Evaluation of the work of employees in the Federal service is governed by the Performance Rating Act of 1950, which establishes a plan to be administered by the individual government agencies (including the Library of Congress) under the general surveillance of the U. S. Civil Service Commission. The text of the Act is given in Section Z-1 and the interpretation of the Act is Section P-4 of the Federal Personnel Manual (77). The use of service rating for state employees in Michigan is described in an attractive "how-to-do-it" manual (78).

The Commission on Teacher Evaluation of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, in a study of teacher-rating practices, found existing plans generally undemocratic and inadequate as a means of guiding the professional growth of teachers (79). The committee's report outlines factors to be considered in evaluating the work of teachers and suggests that rating be developed as part of a cooperative program of curriculum improvement rather than by separate mechanical devices. This analysis may have implications for librarians.

Some of the best articles on industrial merit rating, published by the American Management Association in recent years, have been brought together in one volume, which includes case histories in employee ratings and numerous examples of rating forms, charts, and checklists, in use by industry (80). A thorough presentation on industrial service ratings is offered by Halsey who includes forms for rating nonsupervisory personnel, supervisory personnel, executives, and for self-rating (81). A final chapter is devoted to the handling of "problem cases."

The problem of systematic rating and measurement of executives has been given considerable attention in recent years. Cleeton discusses in Chapter 4 the various techniques for rating executives, including the use of the conference method and self-evaluation (82). Problems, uses, and methods of obtaining evidence on the performance of college faculty members are discussed in an article by Tyler (83) and in Chapter 2 of the volume on academic personnel by Woodburne (84). For further articles on merit rating reference should be made to Mahler's comprehensive bibliography, Twenty Years of Merit Rating, 1926-1946 (85).

By and large, libraries that operate outside a civil service system have not developed formal evaluation programs, and very little has been written on such programs that are in operation. Bryan indicates that only 40 per cent of the libraries surveyed used some type of measuring device for evaluating the

performance of their employees and almost half of these libraries reported no application of the evaluation (9). She notes (p.224) that "before a library can measure the quality of its employees' work, objective requirements for satisfactory job performance must be established." The most thorough summary of merit rating as applied to library personnel was presented by St. John, at that time chairman of the A.L.A. Subcommittee on Service Ratings (86). He reviews the problems and principles involved and describes service rating methods used in business and government. Hoffman proposes that service ratings in libraries be used primarily as a tool in supervision - a device for bringing the supervisor and employee together for periodic discussion of the employee's work (87). Wight discusses briefly the use of rating scales in public libraries, describing the rating program of the Newark Public Library, where such scales are used as a basis for promotion and salary increases (32). Lyle states that where service ratings in college libraries exist at all they are usually informal and based either on the personal opinion of the librarian or the librarian in consultation with the immediate supervisor of the staff member rated (88). He lists advantages and limitations of service ratings for college librarians and summarizes principles of constructing service ratings in public libraries given in an unpublished master's thesis. Lyle also refers to an unpublished service rating form for college and university librarians and reproduces a section of this form.

A standardized form for use in the rating of professional library personnel was developed in 1948 by the Subcommittee on Service Ratings of the A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration (89). The form lists 33 qualities arranged under four general categories: performance, personal qualities, professional qualities, and administrative ability. The form is available in quantity from the association. A collection of personnel rating forms and related documents in use in 52 libraries of various sizes and types was collected by a committee of the A.L.A. Division of Cataloging and Classification (90). This collection is available only on microfilm. It includes general civil service rating forms used by libraries as well as forms prepared especially for library use. Sample rating forms are available for loan from the A.L.A. Office of Personnel Administration.

Closely related to merit rating schemes are tests given expressly to determine fitness for promotion. Information on such tests is included in the general literature on employment testing described in Chapter III, E of this essay.

F. Promotion

The ideal promotional policy in public service agencies, according to Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl (p.179-80), is to provide for "the maximum amount of advancement in responsibility and salary commensurate with the employee's capacity and ability" (1). This, in turn, they point out, would contribute to the highest production and most favorable employee morale. They list six principles for a promotional program; 1) that higher positions should be filled from within whenever possible; 2) that provision should be made for employees to understudy for higher positions; 3) that promotion should be made from as wide an area of the staff as practicable; 4) that all qualified employees should have the opportunity of being considered; 5) that a wide variety of measures and adequate records should be used as a basis for

promotion; and 6) that, in the last analysis, the immediate supervisor or operating officer rather than a higher executive should, within reasonable limits, determine the persons to be promoted. The relationship between the filling of jobs by promotion from within and by selection from without, which may present serious problems relating to morale as well as to staff efficiency, is also discussed in Chapter 7 of the Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl volume. A suggested plan for building better promotion programs in the Federal service is outlined in a pamphlet issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission (91).

Increased attention is being given in industry to promotional policies that are described as systematic. Such plans, according to Yoder, are based on a system of job classification in which there is a careful analysis of the interrelationships existing between jobs throughout an organization and in which a clear channel of natural movement from one job to another is indicated (92). Yoder shows the close relationship between systematic promotional plans and the training program and system of rating employee performance. He describes the various plans for systematic promotion including Gilbreth's "three position plan," the "multiple chain promotion plan," and the use of seniority as a major basis. A brief analysis of promotional plans in representative companies is given in a Princeton report by Baker (93). Policies on promotion in rank in colleges and universities are surveyed in Chapter 2 of Woodburne's volume (84).

Systematic promotional programs seem to be less common in libraries than in industry and government service. Bryan reports in Chapter 9 that less than half the libraries surveyed have a systematic means of evaluation for promotion and only 10 of the 58 libraries surveyed provided any formal training for the promotion of professional librarians (9). The McDiarmids stress the need for more qualitative criteria for performance and for the development and use of reliable techniques for measuring these qualities (94). They note that where seniority is the most highly weighted factor in promotion, "the library has suffered in morale and in the quality of service rendered."

Wilson and Tauber sum up the principles of a good promotional policy in college and university libraries, emphasizing that present staff should be given adequate consideration for positions before outsiders are brought in to fill important positions (3). McDiarmid found that, in filling a chief librarian position, there has been a tendency in college and university libraries to appoint an outsider rather than to advance the assistant or associate librarian (95). This may arise from the desire to secure a new viewpoint or to secure a librarian with advanced training.

Few college libraries, according to Lyle, have a definite program of promotion (88). The small number of staff positions available does not offer many promotional opportunities. He recommends four principles which should govern promotion: 1) promotion should be by merit rather than by years of service; 2) promotions should be made on records of fitness and not on individual judgment; 3) first consideration in filling vacancies should be given to present staff; and 4) in filling junior positions, consideration should be given to those persons who have abilities which might entitle them to subsequent promotion.

Both Short and Gant discuss the various principles relating to promotion as they apply to library situations, noting the close relationship with the promotional program and the development of a career service (96, 97).

Promotion to a new position, or to a higher grade within the same position, just as in original placement, is based on two factors; knowledge of the job requirements and knowledge of the individual. Job classification and provision for salary increases for merit are discussed in Chapter II of this essay. The evaluation of training, experience, and personal qualities, through the use of personnel forms, personal interviews, and formal tests, is discussed in Chapter III of this essay. Staff participation in the promotional program is discussed in Chapter VI, F.

G. Transfer

Whereas promotion generally involves an upward movement to a position with increased responsibility, rank, and salary, transfer is a movement from one job to another that requires approximately the same level of talents and responsibilities and usually no significant change in pay. Transfers, according to Yoder, may be effected for such reasons as increased work load in one department over another, faulty original placement, changed interests and abilities of the employee, personality conflicts, age and physical condition of the employee, and as a means of maintaining employee interest and developing a broader basis of experience for possible promotion (92). In Chapter 7 of their volume Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl discuss the reassignment procedures used in government agencies, recommending a flexible transfer policy as an important factor in maintaining employee morale and also as a source of economy in enabling a department to adjust to the seasonal and other fluctuations in the volume of work (1). (See Chapter VI of this essay as it relates to employee morale and job satisfaction.)

Bryan found (p.196f) that only 17 per cent of the public libraries surveyed had a planned program for transfers and that a considerably higher percentage of employees are transferred within large library systems than in smaller systems where there are fewer comparable jobs (9). Transfers were found to be the most frequently used means of attempted adjustment of personality problems. "Transfer of an emotionally maladjusted employee to another department or branch at best usually affords only temporary relief," according to Bryan. Neither is "transfer" a substitute for dismissal of an unsatisfactory employee. Problems of employee relations, counseling, discipline, demotion, and dismissal are discussed in Chapter VI of this essay.

H. Employee Turnover

It has long been recognized by both industry and government that employee turnover provides one of the best means for measuring the personnel practices of an organization and the adequacy of its wages and conditions of work. A very high rate of turnover is a costly experience for an organization in terms of money and of staff morale. An extremely low turnover rate, on the other hand, may suggest job stagnation. Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl in Chapter 8 summarize the significance of turnover in government - how it can be measured and what steps can be taken to control it (1).

The causes of turnover are both numerous and complex. Seldom do employees leave voluntarily for any single reason, although such a reason may be given to the employer. A general discussion of the causes of turnover is presented in an article by Baruch (98). The exit (or terminal) interview is used widely in both industry and government to determine the cause for an employee leaving so that the employer can benefit in evaluating his personnel policies. An added reason for the exit interview is to create goodwill on the part of the employee toward the organization. These factors are brought out in a comprehensive summary of the exit interview prepared by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (99). The use of the exit interview to control turnover is also discussed in Hull's article, "I Was Fired" (100).

No comprehensive data are available on either the rate or reasons for turnover in libraries. Goldhor, in his study of personnel policies in six public libraries, suggests 15 per cent as an optimum rate of turnover, i.e., the ratio of the number of separations occurring in a year to the total number of positions available (101). Bryan, on the basis of limited data, believes (p.201) that the major cause of turnover in public libraries is "loss of employees through voluntary resignation for reasons that are primarily economic" (9). Hoage, on the basis of a limited analysis of turnover in two university libraries, found evidence that the factor of low salaries was only one of a number of important reasons why library employees resigned (102). In a study of job histories of graduates of 17 library schools (class of 1937), conducted in 1949, Hoage notes among the causes of turnover certain factors which were peculiar to the type of library (103). For example, working conditions influenced turnover for school librarians; status was an important reason for college and university librarians leaving; and lack of opportunity for advancement caused many public librarians to change jobs.

The subject of turnover is closely related to job satisfaction, work incentives, and morale, which are discussed in Chapter VI of this essay.

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Chapter V

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

A. General

The employer who would attract and keep a competent staff must necessarily be concerned with working conditions which have a bearing on staff efficiency and morale. These include such matters as job security, physical working conditions, hours of work, vacations, sick leaves, and retirement provisions. Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl have summed up these aspects of employment in Chapters 16, 18, and 19 of their text on public personnel (1). Considerable attention is given to working conditions in the various volumes on industrial personnel administration, but these discussions are more pertinent to the factory than to the office. Herbert devotes a section of her book to working conditions in public libraries (2), and Lyle summarizes existing standards of working conditions in college libraries (3). The A.L.A. manuals on Personnel Organization and Procedure include sections on working conditions, giving suggested statements on the work week, work load, time and method of salary payment, and leaves of absence (4, 5). Less tangible factors affecting morale, such as qualities of leadership, the extent of democracy in the organization, communication facilities, and employer-employee relationships, are discussed in Chapter VI of this essay.

B. Tenure

Every worker, regardless of the nature of his employment, is concerned with job security, or tenure as it is called in academic circles. In industry a labor union may act in behalf of its members to insure job security. In most government agencies and academic institutions some form of merit system protects the employee from unwarranted removal from his job. The accepted procedure under civil service is to provide a probationary period during which time a careful appraisal is made of the employee and his effectiveness on the job. After the employee has passed the probationary period, he may be discharged only for cause and often only after a hearing. The problem of preserving a fair balance between the interest of the employee and the employer, with special reference to library situations, is discussed by McDiarmid (6). Woodburne describes faculty tenure policies and the nature of academic contracts in colleges and universities in his survey volume (7).

In 1946 the Council of the American Library Association adopted a statement of principles of intellectual freedom and tenure which conformed in substance to the 1940 statement of the American Association of University Professors (8). The A.L.A. statement was based on five principles which the framers considered as the fundamental rights of any professional group: 1) intellectual freedom; 2) appointment and promotion based solely on merit; 3) adequate economic security; 4) freedom from undue interference or dismissal for political, religious, racial, or other unjust reasons; and 5) opportunity for professional growth. In 1947 a statement on intellectual freedom and tenure for nonprofessional library employees was adopted by the A.L.A. Council (9). It is generally agreed that the tenure policy of a library, as of any other agency, should be clearly defined in writing and that a complete statement of such policy should be made available to each employee at the

time of appointment. Bryan indicates, in Chapter 8, the extent to which public library personnel surveyed by the Public Library Inquiry were covered by tenure arrangements (10). Because of infrequent dismissals, public librarians seemed to feel little concern over lack of formal security.

In recent years the principle of tenure based on intellectual freedom has been challenged by the institution of loyalty oaths and investigations. These actions have grown out of efforts in the Federal government and in a number of states and municipalities to weed out employees who are disloyal to the government of the United States. The story of these efforts is told in two challenging volumes by Barth (11) and Gelhorn (12) and is summarized in Chapter 17 of Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl (1).

In 1950 the Council of the American Library Association adopted a resolution protesting "loyalty programs which inquire into a library employee's thoughts, reading matter, associates, or membership in organizations, unless a particular person's definite actions warrant such investigation" (13). The A.L.A. statement also condemns loyalty oaths and investigations "which permit the discharge of an individual without a fair hearing."

C. Faculty Rank

A situation which is peculiar to academic libraries is the granting of faculty status to professional librarians. Differences in opinion on this matter have grown out of the varying nature of library duties themselves, which are in part administrative, in part technical, and in part instructional. A study of college librarians in 1939 (14) and a similar study of university librarians in 1940 (15) indicated a reluctance on the part of college and university administrators to grant faculty rank, with all of its privileges, to any except the chief librarian, department heads, and those librarians engaged in classroom teaching. A study made by Lundy in 1950, however, showed that in the intervening decade there had been a decided trend toward granting faculty rank to all professional librarians (16). Lundy describes the status of librarians in 36 large universities and the attitude of the head librarian toward the granting of faculty rank to the library staff. In 14 of the libraries surveyed the library staff was identified with the faculty; in eight libraries the professional staff was granted limited faculty status; in seven libraries the librarian expressed an interest in acquiring or extending faculty status to librarians; and in the seven remaining libraries the librarian favored other methods of securing recognition for the professional staff. Lundy's study also indicates that faculty title and faculty privileges for librarians are not always tied together. In some instances, librarians are given professorial titles and the implied social status but do not receive salaries or retirement provisions equivalent to teaching faculty, and are not granted sabbaticals, or given the right to vote or to serve on committees. On the other hand, some of the privileges normally associated with faculty rank were granted to library staff members under a civil service system. A survey of 70 eastern college and university libraries, made by Gelfand in 1949, reveals the lack of uniformity in college and university policies on the status of librarians (17). The survey indicates the degree to which librarians participate on faculty committees, their status and relative pay, and the attitude of the chief librarian and the college administrator toward the status of librarians. More recent statistical data on faculty

rank of librarians in medium-sized liberal arts colleges were obtained by the Association of College and Reference Libraries (18).

Downs describes the experience at the University of Illinois where the library professional staff was removed from civil service and granted faculty rank in 1944 by action of the board of trustees (19). Faculty rank for librarians at Illinois was based on three factors which were brought out in an intensive study of the problem; the instructional and research nature of library work, the comparable education and preparation of librarians and teaching faculty, and the value of faculty status in staff morale. The initial assignment of rank was based on detailed job descriptions but subsequent promotion in rank was not dependent upon the position held.

The librarian of the University of California, Berkeley, is among those who doubt the desirability of securing faculty rank for all professional members of the library staff. In a letter published in Lundy's study, the California librarian recommends that library administrators attempt to secure staff benefits separately, rather than to seek to acquire them by blanketing librarians into faculty ranks (16). The experience in establishing a new position-classification plan for librarians at California is described by Bryant and Kaiser (20). Thompson, in summing up discussions on the academic librarian's status, notes that faculty rank, while often desirable, is "no panacea for inadequate salaries and status not commensurate with ability and importance of assignment" (21).

Although librarians both in public and university libraries that come under civil service customarily are given permanent tenure after a brief probationary period, librarians given faculty rank and privileges come under the general tenure policies established by the university for teaching faculty. The customary practice is to grant permanent tenure when a person is appointed or advanced to associate professorship. Woodburne discusses these policies in his survey of college and university personnel administration (7).

D. Physical Working Conditions

There is a large body of literature dealing with the health and safety of workers in plants and factories. Enlightened management has recognized that the provision of safe and comfortable work areas for employees contributes to morale and efficiency, whereas the absence of such provisions may result in discontent, high turnover, and increased operating costs. Calhoon discusses working conditions in industry in Chapters 10, 11, and 19 of his book on Problems in Personnel Administration (22). Although white-collar workers are not subjected to the physical dangers of heavy machinery nor to the fumes, dust, and other hazards of the industrial plant, they are, nevertheless, affected in one way or another by their physical surroundings. "Dark offices, uneven temperatures, dirty corridors, crowded desk space, re-echoing noises, stuffy atmosphere, all have a depressing effect which not only restrains the employee from doing his best work but also affects the public unfavorably." This quotation is taken from page 239 of the volume on Municipal Personnel Administration which discusses the physical conditions of employment in municipal offices (23). Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl summarize the use of safety, health, and welfare programs in Chapter 16 of their volume on public

personnel administration (1). Bryan indicates in Chapter 11 of her survey the extent to which public libraries gave adequate periodic attention to physical working conditions (10). Observation during visits to libraries, Bryan notes, revealed a wide range of adequacy from "ideal" to "hopeless." Brief mention of smoking privileges is given.

In recent years librarians and architects, who have been jointly concerned with the planning of new library buildings or remodeling old ones, have given considerable attention to such factors as lighting, heating and ventilating, the minimizing of noise, restroom facilities, and the installation of labor-saving devices. Although it is beyond the scope of this essay to survey the literature on library architecture, the following general works, which give consideration to staff facilities, are recommended: Wheeler and Githens' volume on public library buildings (24), the Princeton volume on college and university library buildings (25), the A.L.A. publication on planning school library quarters (26), and the compilation of papers on library building problems delivered at the 1946 Chicago Graduate Library School Institute (27). The last contains chapters on modern air treatment, library illumination, facilities for staff welfare, and a selected reading list. A bibliography of the writings of nationally recognized experts in the field of sound control, illumination, ventilation, color engineering, and safety was prepared by Fuller in connection with a series of lectures on the relation of environment to work, sponsored by the Library of Congress (28).

Only large libraries, such as the New York Public Library, provide resident health services for employees; and these services are generally on an emergency basis. Bryan indicates in Chapter 11 the extent of health services, such as physical examinations, first-aid facilities, hospital facilities, and psychological and psychiatric counseling, offered by the public libraries surveyed (10). Library staff members may be included in city-wide or university-wide emergency medical service. Probably the most extensive attempts to provide complete medical service for public employees on a group basis is through the Ross-Loos Clinic, organized in Los Angeles in 1929 and discussed on pages 244-45 of the volume on Municipal Personnel Administration (23). Group health and medical insurance plans are discussed in Section F of this chapter.

E. Hours and Leaves

Most of the information on hours and leaves is of a statistical nature and consists of surveys of existing practices in industry and government. Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl devote a chapter to a general discussion of hours and leaves in public employment (1), and Yoder includes a similar discussion of such policies in industry (29). The bibliography of the U. S. Civil Service Commission cites numerous surveys and studies in both industry and government (30).

Statistical data on hours of work, evening and Sunday hours, length of work week, and amount of paid vacation and sick leave are given for all types of library personnel in the 1949 survey of the economic status of librarians (31). Bryan devotes a section of Chapter 9 of her survey to a discussion of work scheduling and leave practices in public libraries (10). Wilson and Tauber summarize the hours and leave practices in university libraries (32),

and Lyle presents a similar discussion for college libraries (3). The American Library Association's suggested plans for personnel organization contain statements on hours of work, vacations, and leaves intended as guides in the preparation of a statement of policies (4, 5). Recent data on vacation policies in academic libraries are reported by Jones, based on a questionnaire sent to 240 member institutions of the North Central Association and including the record of 1,467 librarians (33). Current statistics on hours and vacations can also be obtained for public and school librarians in a number of states including Indiana (34) and Washington (35).

General university policies on sabbatical leaves are discussed in an article by Ruebsom (36); sabbatical leaves for faculty in teachers colleges are discussed in Chapter 8 of Bosley's book (37). Leaves of absence for self-improvement are discussed in Chapter IV, D of this essay.

The provision of rest periods for employees during the day is an accepted practice in industry and government. Rest periods are designed to overcome the effects of fatigue and monotony, which are no less acute among office workers than among those performing heavy physical labor. Blum describes the complex factors causing fatigue and boredom - factors which are both physiological and psychological (38). He describes these phenomena in relation to personnel practices. A number of libraries provide staff rooms for rest and relaxation. Staff bulletins of individual libraries have sometimes described these facilities.

The problem of absenteeism and tardiness in the office are discussed in three popular reports issued by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (39, 40, 41). Bryan includes in Chapter 9 of her volume a table on work days lost per employee in the public libraries surveyed (10). "On the whole," she observes, "the record is remarkably good."

For references to maternity leaves see Chapter III, H.

F. Retirement Provisions and Insurance

A retirement system, properly planned and administered, is an important part of any personnel program. It provides economic security for employees in old age and enables the organization to keep a constant flow of younger persons into the organization through the systematic retirement of older employees. Such plans may be expected to improve morale in the organization and to aid in recruiting. A comprehensive picture of retirement programs in the United States, both public and private, is presented by Robbins (42).

The extent to which librarians are covered by retirement programs and the nature of these programs vary greatly with the type of library - public, college and university, school, Federal, etc. The last and largest group of librarians to receive systematic retirement coverage is the public librarian. In Chapter 5 of her survey Bryan reports that "more than half the libraries in the complete sample had neither compulsory provisions for retirement nor retirement pensions of any kind" (10). A comprehensive study of retirement for librarians has been issued by the A.L.A. Committee on Annuities, Pensions, and Life Insurance (43). This report covers the history of retirement systems, the principles of a good plan, the present status of retirement

programs, and the application to librarians of Federal social security, private insurance plans, and the plan of the American Library Association. For those interested in further study of the problem, the A.L.A. publication provides a selected bibliography. Timmerman's article on social security in libraries and Greenough's article on social security for educators supplement this information (44, 45). Woodburne discusses retirement practices for college and university faculty in Chapter 6 of his survey volume (7). A more extensive study of retirement policies and plans in 37 colleges and universities for the year 1950-51 was conducted by Bender (46). A recent development in annuity programs for college and university faculty is described by Greenough in a pamphlet on the College Retirement Equities Fund (47). This fund seeks to provide financial stability in retirement during inflationary periods.

In most states the so-called "teacher" retirement plans, which have been in force for many years, also cover school administrative personnel and librarians, particularly when the libraries are administered by the school board. An analysis of 72 public-school retirement plans - how they are supported and the qualifications for benefits - has been prepared by the National Education Association (48). Provisions of the Federal Civil Service Retirement Law are explained in question and answer form in a pamphlet entitled Your Retirement System (49).

In recent years there has been considerable attention given to the study of the older worker and the problems of aging (gerontology). An annotated selective bibliography covering social, economic, and medical aspects of an aging population has been prepared by the Library of the Federal Security Agency (50). One of the areas in which employers have been concerned is the psychological preparation of their employees for retirement. One of several interesting efforts in this regard is the series of booklets entitled My Time Is My Time, prepared for General Motors employees who are about to retire (51).

In addition to providing for the retired employee, socially conscious employers in both industry and government are concerned with providing other forms of economic security. Group life insurance, temporary disability benefits, and health and hospitalization benefits are frequently offered on a voluntary basis to employees. A practical discussion of these plans in operation is contained in Chapters 5, 6, and 7 of a study by Strong (52). Application of such programs to college librarians is discussed in an article by Hobbie which is based on a survey of hospital, health, and life insurance plans in 68 colleges (53).

Another effort in behalf of the economic security of employees is the establishment of credit unions which are voluntary associations formed for the purpose of making loans on reasonable terms to members and also to offer members security and a fair return for their savings. A number of large libraries have their own employee-sponsored credit unions. In many other libraries the staff is eligible for membership in credit unions organized to serve all employees of a particular governmental jurisdiction or a university. Bergengren describes the operation and regulation of credit unions and their development in this country (54), and Clark considers credit unions as they relate to a personnel program (55). Further information on credit unions may

be secured from the Credit Union National Association, P. O. Box 431, Madison 1, Wis.

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Chapter VI

HUMAN RELATIONS

A. General

Good personnel administration is more than the application of technical skill to such matters as job evaluation, recruitment, selection, and merit rating. Although these techniques are important, they are only tools to implement a management philosophy which should embody an understanding of basic human relationships. The good administrator will equate the human interests of his staff with the service interests of his institution.

The first systematic attempt to make theoretical sense out of the complex problems of human relationship in an industrial organization was a series of studies made in the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric, under the direction of Elton Mayo of Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration. These famous experiments, begun in 1927 and conducted over a period of 12 years, placed managerial emphasis, for the first time, on understanding the employee rather than directly on increasing production. The experiments have been reported in a number of volumes including one by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1) and have been described in popular language by Chase and others (2). Among the basic principles in human relations revealed by these and related studies are: 1) that workers are affected by factors outside the job to as great or greater extent than those of the job itself; 2) that workers organize into informal social groups within the plant and that these groups may be even more important to productivity than the formal organization set up by management; 3) that a worker will do the best job if he is made to realize that both he and the work he is doing are important; and 4) that cooperation is a more powerful incentive than competition. The experiences at the Hawthorne plant and subsequent investigations by social psychologists are well summarized in articles by Baxter (3) and Katz (4) in Current Trends in Industrial Psychology.

Hoslett has gathered together some of the most significant articles in the field of human relations in the two editions of his book, Human Factors in Management (5, 6). He considers problems in leadership, personal adjustments, supervision, training, and worker productivity. Both editions should be consulted since there is little duplication in the selection. Dubin presents the theory of human relations in administration in the form of readings embracing such areas as motivation, informal organization, decision-making, leadership, status, and communication (7). One of several casebooks, giving examples of human relations experience in industry and in other walks of life, was prepared for the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration by Glover and Hower (8). It contains a wealth of examples from job histories, letters, biographies, and even works of fiction.

Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl apply principles of sound human relations to public personnel, emphasizing five activities of management which they consider important to high morale: 1) the selection of able supervisors and their training in the field of leadership and psychology; 2) the encouragement of employee participation in improvement of work processes and working conditions; 3) the helping of employees to understand themselves and their

problems (counseling); 4) the improvement of communications between and among employer and employees; and 5) the prompt adjustment of employee grievances (9).

Gardner summarizes some of the basic concepts in the understanding of problems of morale in libraries in a chapter in Personnel Administration in Libraries, but with no attempt to relate these concepts to specific library situations (10). The McDiarmids devote a section of their chapter on "Personnel Management" to employee relations in public libraries (11), and Wilson and Tauber discuss such factors relating to interemployee relations as staff ethics, staff health and welfare, library unions and associations, staff publications, and democratic organization (12). Prescott applies principles of good human relations to public libraries in such matters as delegation of responsibility and handling of grievances (13). In a discussion of personnel in cataloging departments, Tauber emphasizes the need for greater attention to catalogers as people (14). Although a number of popular articles have discussed human relationships in libraries, there have been few basic studies.

For those interested in extensive reading in the field of human relations reference should be made to DeGrazia's comprehensive bibliography on human relations in public administration (15).

B. Morale

Wholesome morale is an invaluable asset to good administration for it stimulates loyalty, cooperation, and teamwork, which are essential in any organization. Morale, or esprit de corps as it is sometimes called, is a composite expression of employee attitudes, individual and collective, toward the organization. In a sense the entire personnel program is devoted to the task of maintaining high staff morale. The mental health of the employee, his satisfaction with his job, and the incentives which motivate his work are three important elements of morale. They are discussed in such industrial psychology texts as those written by Maier (16) and Blum (17). In Chapter 3 Blum indicates five methods by which employee attitudes can be measured so that an employer might get a better insight into the problems of human behavior: the impressionistic method; the guided interview; the unguided interview; the questionnaire; and the attitude scale. He also refers to the Marengo method of measuring group awareness. The exit interview and studies of the causes of employee turnover, discussed in Chapter IV, H of this essay, are also indicators of staff morale.

Whether an employee is satisfied with his job depends upon a number of factors related to his job and to his treatment in the organization. It also depends on the set of attitudes he brings with him to the job, and on his ability to adjust himself to the work and to many group relationships outside the job. The measurement of job satisfaction is still in the experimental stage, but methods presently in use are discussed by Maier (16) and Blum (17). Heron and others have found that financial awards and penalties are not necessarily the most important incentives to work (18). Such intangible factors as social satisfaction, pride in achievement, prestige, and professional responsibility may be more important than high pay. Any personnel program, therefore, should consider not only an adequate salary schedule and pension provisions but also such nonfinancial incentives as reasonable hours

and working conditions, adequate vacations and sick leaves, public recognition of outstanding work, and an equitable program of training and promotion. Closely related to morale are problems of fatigue and boredom, discussed in Chapter V, E.

Applying general principles to the public library field, the McDiarmids list seven factors in building morale: 1) a good personnel program; 2) a determination to study and attack the morale problem; 3) stimulating leadership; 4) impartiality in handling personnel matters; 5) satisfactory working conditions; 6) adequate communication; and 7) attention to individuals and their desires (11). Munn suggests ways in which the library administration might improve staff morale by developing a sense of "belonging" (19). Bryan reports (p.262-64) on the extent to which public libraries make use of administrative practices that recognize individual intelligence and ability and thus provide an incentive to the employee to exert his best effort (20). She also discusses (p.129-35) the extent of professional satisfaction and dissatisfaction with public librarianship as a career, as expressed by practicing librarians. A questionnaire study of morale among catalogers in all types of libraries, conducted by Herrick, reveals some of the factors which catalogers consider important for good morale and the extent to which such factors are present in their jobs (21). The Staff Association of the University of California Library at Berkeley designed and administered a "What Do You Think?" questionnaire to staff members, the results of which have been used by department heads in the improvement of administration (22).

C. Leadership and Supervision

Leadership, according to Tead, is the influencing of people to cooperate toward a goal which they come to find desirable (23). Inspired and informed leadership, as well as efficient and progressive personnel methods, are obviously essential to good personnel administration. The role of leadership and the means of developing it in government and industry are being given increased attention - both in basic research and in practical application. This is reflected in improved methods of selecting employees for leadership qualities, in improved methods of promotion, and in the development of leadership training for supervisors and executives. The fundamental nature of organizational authority and leadership, based on observation and personal experience, has been developed by Barnard in what is considered a basic theoretical work (24) and in a more popularly written presentation on the art of leadership by Tead (23). Psychological and sociological bases for business leadership are presented by Knickerbocker and McGregor in the revised edition of Hoslett's book (6). Those interested in background reading in the field of leadership and democratic action should refer to Gouldner's collection of studies in leadership (25).

There has been very little research in library leadership except for that which appears incidental to the biographical accounts of famous librarians. In Chapter 3 of her survey Bryan describes leadership characteristics among public librarians as revealed in a personality profile inventory (20). The McDiarmids note that while top leadership in public libraries has been strong, there is need for improvement in leadership at the intermediate, supervisory levels (11).

The strategic position of the supervisor in personnel relations, particularly in the training of employees, has been discussed in Chapter IV of this essay. In recent years attention has turned from technical competence as the primary requisite in the selection of supervisors to the recognition and development of leadership qualities and the ability to get along with people. Three articles in the revised edition of Hoslett's volume (Section II) deal with the basic concepts of supervisory behavior (6). These are followed by two articles (Section III) which discuss the training of supervisors in leadership and human relations skills.

D. Solving Employee Problems

In any organization conditions are likely to arise when an employee feels that he is being treated unfairly. This is particularly the case when a change has been made in the work assignment. Whether an employee's grievances are well- or ill-founded, they tend to undermine morale and require prompt adjustment. Able supervisors, who have the respect and confidence of their employees, can do much toward solving such problems. Some provision, however, must be made for an employee to consult with someone on a higher level or to appeal any personnel action. Many executives, particularly in small organizations, maintain an "open door" to any employee who wishes to discuss problems relating to work in the organization. In larger organizations, where this personal relationship between "worker" and "boss" is impractical, the personnel office has replaced the "boss" as an advisor to employees. Large industrial and government organizations usually have formal procedures for the adjustment of grievances, frequently tied in with union relationships. Lapp discusses the formal handling of employee grievances in industry (26), and a Civil Service Assembly report sums up the experience in grievance handling in public service jurisdictions, with emphasis on appeals related to dismissals (27).

Although most libraries will require less formidable systems for handling employee grievances, a definite policy should be established and made known to all employees. Bryan notes (p.255-56) the extent to which staff associations and unions participate in grievance handling among public library employees (20).

An employee's ability to get along with others may be impaired and his efficiency in the organization may drop because of personal problems not entirely related to his job. In recent years a growing number of companies and government agencies have established formal counseling services staffed with specially trained counselors. Baker has surveyed the development of industrial counseling in an analysis of some sixty programs (28). A handbook of counseling techniques as practiced in industry and government is presented by Bowler and Dawson (29). Although few libraries are large enough to provide a formalized counseling service, the various approaches and techniques used in counseling may have some application in the handling of employee problems by a general personnel assistant or by executives and supervisors. Swofford discusses ways in which the maladjusted college librarian may be helped to find and correct the causes of his difficulties, whether emotional or environmental (30).

One of the most promising methods for increasing morale in an

organization, and, to a limited extent, a device for solving the problems of individual employees, is group participation. A committee, made up of employees most vitally concerned with a problem (lighting, smoking privileges, promotion policy, tardiness, etc.), may not only find an acceptable solution to the immediate problem but will also produce a desirable by-product of group cooperation. In a casebook, based on extensive experimental work in industry, Maier emphasizes role-playing, group-decision procedure, problem-solving conferences, and nondirective interviewing (31). Democracy in administration, in its broader aspects, is discussed in a subsequent section of this essay as are two other topics closely related to the solving of employee problems: communication between employee and employer and activities of employee organizations.

E. Discipline

One of the most difficult and unpleasant tasks that confronts an administrator is that of disciplining, suspending, or dismissing an employee. Although a positive personnel program will reduce the need for punitive measures, there will be occasion even in the best organization when the morale and efficiency of the organization will require such action. One of the most mature discussions of morale and discipline in public employment appears in Meriam's volume on public personnel problems (32). He contrasts the "strict disciplinarian," to whom rules and regulations are legion, with the administrator who relies on leadership and the maintenance of high morale but who does not hesitate to take firm action when necessary. Tead presents a program of constructive discipline in which he specifies three requirements: a clear-cut personnel policy, employee participation in making and enforcing of rules, and adequate publicity to rules and regulations (33). Forms and methods of discipline, together with review and appeal procedures, are discussed in a chapter of Municipal Personnel Administration (34). A survey of current practices and trends in maintaining discipline in industry, less applicable to libraries than the experience in government agencies, is the subject of a special report of the American Management Association (35). Most public jurisdictions have regulations which provide for suspension or dismissal of an employee for cause but which, at the same time, protect the employee from unwarranted action. One of the outstanding examples of a municipal disciplinary code is that promulgated by the Milwaukee City Civil Service Commission (36). Regulations governing conduct of Federal employees are contained in Chapter C2 of the Federal Personnel Manual (37).

In the library field, as in other professions, the development of a code of professional ethics is perhaps the most effective basis for self-discipline. Such codes are discussed below in the section on professional status and ethics. The McDiarmids discuss the problem of dismissal and removal in public libraries, noting that such action is rare (11). They recommend a firmer attitude in cases where dismissals should clearly be made for the good of the service, but, at the same time, a policy which will insure permanent employees against arbitrary and ill-considered removals.

The problem of dismissal is closely related to that of probation discussed in Chapter III, F for it is at the end of the probationary period that an employee, found to be unsatisfactory, can be dismissed with least difficulty for the organization and least dislocation or prejudice to the

individual. Problems of employee tenure in libraries are discussed in Chapter V, B of this essay.

F. Democracy in Administration

Employee participation in the formulation and improvement of personnel policies has long been recommended by personnel experts and used with considerable success in industry and in government. Democracy in the administration of an organization not only provides a sound method for policy-making and problem-solving but it is also an effective method for achieving high morale. Tead provides a philosophical discussion of democratic administration which he defines (on pages 71-72) as the "over-all direction of an organization which assures that purposes and policies are shared in the making, that methods are understood and agreed to, that individual potentialities are being enhanced, (and) that corporate or group ends are being realized with a maximum of release of shared creative power and a minimum of human friction" (38). Baxter describes the various degrees of self-government in industry from that of complete authoritarian control to that of joint discussion of problems and the development of a group solution, a practice with a sound psychological basis (3). Benjamin has applied the principles of democratic participation to the administration of higher education (39). Based on a survey of 47 public high schools designated by state and university leaders in education as having good staff relationships, the U. S. Office of Education prepared an illustrated pamphlet, Keystones of Good Staff Relationships (40). Democratic participation in school administration lay behind at least half of the 12 keystones as contributing to the esprit de corps of teachers. Most of these principles apply with equal force to librarians in schools and colleges. In 1952 the Federal Personnel Council adopted a guide for employee participation in the management of Federal agencies (41). The guide recommends two types of participation plans - one providing for direct participation of all employees, the second providing for participation through elected representatives.

Danton presents the case for democratic administration of libraries, noting that there has been considerable staff participation in such matters as book selection and in the preparation of annual reports, but very little in personnel administration and policy-making (42). Goldhor states that staff participation in policy-making in libraries is in tune with democratic trends in American life and that such a program will pay dividends in staff morale (43). Experience in staff participation in the Library of Congress, which has been formally proclaimed as a library policy, has been discussed widely in both personnel and library literature. MacLeish outlines the basic principles of the Library of Congress plan in an issue of the staff bulletin (44). Holmes describes how this program works and cites typical recommendations made by employees (45). Annual reports of the Librarian of Congress describe the current status of the program for staff participation.

McAnally describes the use of a staff council system in administering the departmental libraries at the University of Illinois, noting favorable results in morale and communication (46). He found that administrative and technical problems were solved with greater satisfaction and that staff members became more conscious of their professional role in relation to the library as a whole. Experience with departmental staff meetings as an aid in

administration at the Oakland Public Library is discussed in a symposium (47). Norton describes a similar experience in the Providence Public Library (48). The use of the staff conference in the solution of personnel problems, particularly employee grievances, at the Sacramento Public Library is described by DeWitt (49). Bryan notes (p.276) that about half of the professional employees of the public libraries surveyed believed that they were given too little opportunity to participate in policy determination (20).

The McDiarmids point out that it is the attitude of the administrator, rather than the absence or presence of any specific device, that is most important in democratic administration (11). An approachable administrator who is interested in developing and consulting his staff members in policy matters may achieve the effects of staff participation without the formal devices which may be necessary in a large organization. The McDiarmids make four general suggestions for developing democracy in library administration: 1) suggestions for change and improvement should be encouraged; 2) groups of staff members should be employed for study and discussion of library problems; 3) opportunities should be afforded for constructive work; and 4) rank and file staff members, as well as department heads, should be consulted.

G. Communication

Democracy in administration is best expressed through the free flow of information and ideas in an organization. Effective communication among and between employees and employers, therefore, is a basic prerequisite to good personnel relations. Pigors has summed up the basic principles of communication in industry which he emphasizes are most effective when they take place as a cooperative project (50). He discusses the nature of "meaning" and some of the practical aspects of order-giving, transmission of company policy, and provision for the free flow of ideas and information within the organization. Heron emphasizes the sharing (rather than the conveying) of information through effective employee understanding and acceptance (51). He discusses what information should be shared and some of the channels of communication. Peters reviews the media and methods generally used in industry to transmit information to employees and for obtaining employees' opinions, suggestions, and desires (52). These include such media as employee publications (news organs, handbooks, memoranda, and annual reports), suggestion systems, bulletin boards, meetings, counseling, formal training programs, and various personal contacts. Peters discusses methods for evaluating communications within an organization and offers practical suggestions for developing an effective program.

Considerable technical information is available on each of the various methods of communications. Bentley, for example, has written one of several books giving advice to beginners on how to write and edit an employee publication (53). Suggestions for the preparation of employee handbooks are given in a chapter of Halsey's book (54) and in a report of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (55). The use of employee suggestion systems has been described in a study of the National Industrial Conference Board (56) and in a pamphlet issued by the Small Defense Plants Administration (57). Counseling programs, in-service training, and attitude surveys have already been discussed. For those interested in pursuing the subject further there is the U. S. Civil Service Commission's bibliography on employee relations and

employee services which contains an extensive list of articles and books on communicating with employees (58).

Bryan notes (p.262-64) that, with the exception of a few articles concerned with democracy or incentives, the need for a two-way channel for sharing information has not been discussed in library literature (20). She surveys the use in public libraries of such communication practices as visits with employees, consultation, staff meetings, publications, suggestion systems, and others. Wallace emphasizes in two articles that public relations begins at home - that libraries need to do a better job of informing their own staffs of plans, programs, and policies (59, 60).

Library staff manuals play an important part in informing employees of personnel policies. The A.L.A. manuals on Personnel Organization and Procedure offer suggested statements of policy which can be adapted to the use of any public or academic library (61, 62). Further suggestions for preparing a staff manual are given in an article by Boots (63) and in a leaflet issued by the Staff Organizations Round Table of A.L.A. (64).

Wilson and Tauber surveyed the use of staff manuals in college and university libraries, finding such manuals of greatest use in large libraries where there was considerable turnover and in small libraries with a large student staff (65). Microfilm copies of the manuals examined by Wilson and Tauber may be secured from the Department of Photographic Reproduction, University of Chicago. Library staff manuals may be issued for the purpose of orienting new staff members in policies and rules of the organization, or they may serve as detailed manuals for work procedures. Examples of orientation manuals are those issued by the Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore; the Oakland Public Library; the New York Public Library; Yale University Library; and the University of California Library. Examples of staff manuals, which include detailed work procedures as well as personnel information, are those issued by the Chicago Public Library, the University of Illinois Library, and Antioch College Library. The Office of Personnel Administration of the American Library Association has a collection of such manuals which it will lend to libraries that wish to develop their own publications. The use of staff handbooks in orientation training is discussed in Chapter IV, B.

Library staff periodicals may be of two types - those issued by the administration for employees and containing official news, and those prepared by employees (usually staff associations or unions) for their members. Sometimes it is difficult to draw a distinction between the two. Among the outstanding library staff periodicals are: the Cincinnati Public Library Staff Notes, the Newark Public Library NPL News, the University of Oregon Library Call Number, the Columbia University Columbia Library World, the University of Illinois Staff Bulletin, and the Library of Congress Information Bulletin. The last mentioned bulletin, because of the professional leadership of the Library of Congress, is of general interest to the profession.

The use of library staff meetings as a form of communication is discussed by Wilkins (66) and in several articles referred to in Section F of this chapter.

H. Employee Organizations

The importance of organizations of library employees in the maintenance of staff morale is discussed by Phelps, who analyzes the various types of organizations and their desirability from the standpoint of both the employer and the employee (67). Phelps believes formal organizations have several basic features in common; the extension of popular sovereignty, the opening of channels of communication, and the provision of self-help through cooperation. He discusses the values of staff organizations versus labor unions for professional librarians, recommending that local staff associations be amalgamated into a national organization qualified and able to speak for librarians. The Staff Organizations Round Table of the American Library Association, which includes both staff associations and unions, was formed primarily for the discussion of mutual problems confronting local staff associations and not as an amalgamated agency such as Phelps recommends. The round table issues a quarterly bulletin, SORT, which chronicles the activities of affiliated staff organizations (68).

The extent and nature of staff associations and unions in the public libraries surveyed are reported by Bryan (p.264-75), who indicates the type of activities in which they have been engaged and the attitude of library employees and library administrators toward them (20). An extensive report on library unions in the United States and abroad was made by Berelson in 1939 (69). This information has been brought up to date, with considerable documentation, in a thesis by Clopine, who summarizes trends and analyzes reasons for union affiliation (70). Those desiring further background on employee organizations and representation should refer to Chapter 13 in Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl (9), and to the report of the Civil Service Assembly on Employee Relations in the Public Service (27).

It should be noted that many of the personnel practices and programs discussed in this essay were stimulated or sponsored by staff organizations and are reported under their respective subjects.

I. Professional Status and Ethics

One of the factors which has a direct bearing on personnel problems in libraries is the professional nature of librarianship. Numerous discussions have appeared in library literature concerning librarianship as a profession. A recent appraisal of the character of librarianship has been made by Butler, who views the essential intellectual content of library work as a composite of a technology, a science, and a humanistic discipline (71). The humanistic aspect, he believes, is the basis for librarianship's claim as a profession. To understand the essential nature of a profession and its relationship to society, reference should be made to Flexner's lecture entitled, "Is Social Work a Profession?" (72). In this well-known paper, Flexner names six criteria as essential to a profession; 1) intellectual operations with large individual responsibility; 2) raw materials from science and learning; 3) a practical and definite end; 4) an educational and communicable technique; 5) self-organization; and 6) increasingly altruistic motivation. He considers a profession as a brotherhood with activities so definite and absorbing in interest that they completely engage their adherents. Leigh also examines the concept of librarianship as a profession in the general report of the

Public Library Inquiry (73).

Bryan found (p.148) that public librarians are not a clearly defined professional group and that, although they belonged to professional associations and participated in conferences, meetings, and committee work to a moderate degree, they did not, for the most part, "have the sense of conscious professional or personal benefit from professional association membership or activities that prevails in more closely organized and regulated professions" (20). In a critique of the Bryan study, Hughes characterizes librarianship as a new profession which can learn much from the struggles for professional recognition of such older professions as law and medicine (74). He believes that many of the current personnel problems of libraries reflect a normal course of development in the attainment of professional status.

Numerous books and articles in education journals have dealt with the professional aspects of teaching in schools and colleges. Such literature has a direct bearing on librarianship in academic institutions where the librarian is as much a part of the educational program as the classroom teacher. Shyrock's article in the A.A.U.P. Bulletin offers a provocative and well-documented analysis of the academic profession in the United States (75).

One of the by-products of professionalization, which plays an important part in personnel administration, is the development of clearly defined codes of individual ethics and behavior. A discussion of ethical standards and typical codes of conduct for engineers, architects, lawyers, teachers, social workers, journalists, and others was presented in an early issue of the Annals (76). Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl in Chapter 17 discuss the importance of self-discipline, which they consider an important contribution of the professions and one of the goals of enlightened leadership (9). A Code of Ethics Committee of the American Library Association, after a number of years of study and consultation, drew up a "Code of Ethics for Librarians" which was adopted by the A.L.A. Council in 1938 (77). Based on codes of rights and responsibilities in force in other professions, this code outlines the responsibilities of the professional librarian not only toward his employer, his patrons, and his fellow workers, but also to the library profession and to society.

Sound human relations are not only desirable in an organization because they conform to democratic principles but also because there is conclusive evidence that such practices pay off in terms of better personnel administration. Librarians would do well to follow the lead of enlightened business and government agencies in humanizing administration.

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